FIRST EDITION

Exam Oriented

Anatomy

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SCALP

The soft tissues covering the cranial vault form the scalp.

Extent of scalp

Anteriorly- Supraorbital margins;

Posteriorly- External occipital protuberance and superior nuchal lines;

Each side- The superior temporal lines.

Structure

The scalp is made up of **five layers**:

- (1) Skin- first layer of the scalp
 - It is thick and hairy.
 - It is joined to the **epicranial aponeurosis** through the dense superficial fascia.
- (2) Superficial fascia [connective tissue] second layer of the scalp
 - It binds skin to aponeurosis.
 - vessels and nerves to the skin pass from this layer.
- (3) Deep fascia [epicranial aponeurosis] Third layer of scalp.
 - **It** is freely movable on the pericranium.
 - Anteriorly, it receives the insertion of the frontalis,
 - **posteriorly,** it receives the insertion of the occipitalis

The **occipitofrontalis muscle** has two bellies, occipital and frontal.

- Both are inserted into the **epicranial aponeurosis.**
- (4) Loose areolar tissues Fourth layer of the scalp
 - It extends **anteriorly** into the eyelids <u>because the frontalis muscle has no bony</u> attachment;
 - posteriorly to the highest and superior nuchal lines;
- (5) pericranium. The fifth layer of the scalp
 - It is loosely attached to the surface of the bones.
 - It is firmly attached to their sutures.

Arterial Supply of Scalp

In front of the auricle, the scalp is supplied from-

- (1) Supratrochlear;
- (2) supraorbital; and
- (3) superficial temporal arteries

Behind the auricle, the scalp is supplied from

- (4) posterior auricular, and
- (5) occipital arteries

The scalp has a rich *blood supply* derived from both the internal Anatomyand the external carotid arteries.

Venous Drainage

• The veins of the scalp accompany the arteries and have similar names

Nerve supply

In front of the auricle	Behind the auricle
Sensory nerves	Sensory Nerves
Supratrochlear Nerve	Great auricular nerve
Suprorbital Nerve	 Lesser occipital Nerve
 Zygomatico-temporal nerve 	Greater occipital Nerve
Auriculo temporal nerve	Third occipital Nerve
Motor nerve Motor Nerve	
Temporal nerve	 Posterior auricular Nerve

Clinical anatomy of scalp

- **Bleeding is more from scalp** because scalp is having rich Blood supply. **Bleeding can be arrested by applying pressure against the bone.**
- inflammations in scalp cause little swelling but much pain.
- The layer of loose areolar tissue is known as the *dangerous area* of the scalp because the **emissary veins**, which open here, may transmit infection from the scalp to the cranial venous sinuses.
- Collection of blood in the layer of loose connective tissue causes generalised swelling of the scalp. The blood may extend anteriorly into the root of the nose and into the eyelids, causing black eye.
- Surgical layers of scalp first three layers are firmly attached with each other and cannot be separated from each other. Wounds of the scalp do not gape unless the third layer is divided.
- In Infants the veins of scalp are easily seen deep to the skin, so it is used for intravenous infusion.
- **Pericranium is adherent to sutures** so, <u>collections of fluid deep to the</u> pericranium take the shape of the bone, known as **cephalhaematoma**
- sebaceous glands are more in scalp. So, scalp is a common site for sebaceous cysts.- In this condition fluid is accumulated in sebaceous gland and converted into cyst.

POSTERIOR TRIANGLE

The posterior triangle is a **space on the side of the neck** situated **behind the sternocleidomastoid muscle.**

Boundaries

Anterior: Posterior border of **sternocleidomastoid**

Posterior: Anterior border of trapezius.

Inferior or base: Middle one-third of clavicle.

Apex: Lies on the superior nuchal line where the trapezius and sternocleidomastoid meet

Roof

• Investing layer of deep cervical fascia.

• The superficial fascia

• Skin

Floor

The floor of the posterior triangle is formed by the prevertebral layer of deep cervical fascia.

Division of the Posterior Triangle

It is subdivided by the inferior belly of the omohyoid into

- upper part, called the occipital triangle, and
- ➤ lower part, called the supraclavicular or the subclavian triangle

Contents of the Posterior Triangle

Occipital triangle content

Nerve

- spinal accessory nerve
- dorsal scapular nerve
- upper trunk of brachial plexus

Vessels

occipital artery

Lymphnodes

supraclavicular lymphnodes

Subclavian triangle content Nerve

- three trunks of brachial plexus
- nerve to serratus anterior
- suprascapular nerve
- Nerve to subclavius

Vessels

- Subclavian artery and vein
- Suprascapular artery and vein

Lymphnodes

Supraclavicular lymphnodes

STERNOCLEIDOMASTOID MUSCLE

The sternocleidomastoid are large superficial muscles of the neck.

Origin

- 1. The **sternal head** arises from the **superolateral part of the front of the manubrium sterni**
- 2. The clavicular head arises from the medial one-third of the superior surface of the clavicle.

Insertion

• It is inserted on the mastoid process and lateral half of the superior nuchal line of the occipital bone.

Nerve Supply

- The spinal accessory nerve provides the motor supply.
- Branches from the ventral rami of C2 are proprioceptive.

Actions

- When one muscle contracts:
 - It turns the chin to the opposite side,
 - It can tilt the head towards the shoulder.
- When both muscles contract together
 - > They bring the head forwards
 - > The helps in **forced inspiration**.

Relations

<u>Superficial</u>

- 1.Skin
- 2. Superficial fascia;
- 3.Platysma.

Deep

- 1.Bones and joints:
- (a) Mastoid process above (b) sternoclavicular joint below.
- 2. Carotid sheath

3. Muscles

(a) Sternohyoid, (b) sternothyroid;

4.Arteries:

(a) Common carotid, (b) internal carotid, (c) external carotid

5.Veins: Internal jugular

6.Nerves: (a) Vagus; (b) accessory (c) cervical plexus, (d) upper part of brachial plexus

7.Lymph nodes- deep cervical

Clinical Anatomy

Torticollis or wryneck

- It is the condition in which the **head is bent to one side and the chin points to the other side.**
- This occurs due to spasm or contracture of the muscles supplied by the spinal accessory nerve.

Although there are many varieties of torticollis.

depending on the causes the common types are:

- Rheumatic torticollis due to exposure to cold.
- Reflex torticollis due to inflamed or suppurating cervical lymph nodes which irritate the spinal accessory nerve.
- Congenital torticollis due to birth Injury.
- Spasmodic torticollis due to central irritation

CAROTID SHEATH

It is a **condensation of the fibroareolar tissue** around the **main vessels of the neck.** It is the modification of deep fascia

Contents of carotid sheath

- common and internal carotid arteries
- > internal jugular vein
- > vagus nerve.

Relations

- anterior wall- ansa cervicalis
- behind the sheath cervical sympathetic chain
- The sheath is overlapped by the sternocleidomastoid muscle

CAROTID TRIANGLE

It is the part of anterior triangle

It is called carotid triangle because it contains all the three carotid arteries

Boundries

Antero Superiorly – posterior belly of digestric, stylohyoid muscle

Antero inferiorly – superior belly of omohyoid

Posteriorly – anterior border of sternocleidomastoid muscle

Roof-

- Skin,
- Superficial faascia,
- Investing layer of deep cervical fascia

Floor-

Middle and inferior constrictor of pharynx

Contents

1. Carotid arteries

- Common carotid artery
- Internal carotid artery
- External carotid artery
- 2. Carotid sinus and carotid body
- 3. Carotid sheath
- 4. Internal juglar vein

5. Last three cranial nerves

- <u>Vegus</u>
- Spinal accessory nerve
- Hypoglossal nerve
- 6. Ansa cervicalis
- 7. Cervical part of sympathetic chain
- 8. Deep cervical group of lymph nodes

Clinical anatomy

Carotid sinus syndrome

- Pressure on carotid sinus result in **slowing of heart rate, falling of blood pressure** and syncope.
- It commonly occurs in person with carotid sinus hypertrophy

CAVERNOUS SINUSES

Each cavernous sinus is a **large venous space** situated in the **middle cranial fossa.** They are situated on either side of the body of the sphenoid bone.

- The floor is formed by the endosteal dura mater.
- The lateral wall, roof and medial wall are formed by the meningeal dura mater.
- Anteriorlythe sinus extends up to the the superior orbital fissure and
- posteriorly, up to the apex of the petrous temporal bone.

It is about 2 cm long, and 1 cm wide.

Relations

Structures outside the sinus:

Superiorly: Optic tract, optic chiasma

Inferiorly- foramen lacerum

Medially- pituitary gland and sphenoidal air sinus

Laterally: temporal lobe

anteriorly: superior orbital fissure **posteriorly:** petrous temporal bone

Structures in the Lateral Wall of the Sinus, from above Downwards

- Oculomotor nerve
- Trochlear nerve
- Ophthalmic nerve.
- Maxillary nerve.

Structures Passing through the Centre of the Sinus

- Internal carotid artery
- abducent nerve,

Tributaries or Incoming Channels

From the orbit:

- The superior ophthalmic vein;
- inferior ophthalmic vein
- the central vein of the retina

From the brain:

Superficial middle cerebral vein

From the meninges:

- Sphenoparietal sinus
- middle meningeal vein

Draining Channels or Communications

The cavernous sinus drains into-

- transverse sinus, internal jugular vein, pterygoid plexus of veins, facial vein.
- The right and left cavernous sinuses communicate with each other through the anterior and posterior inter cavernous sinuses

All these communications are valveless, and blood can flow through them in either direction.

CLINICAL ANATOMY

Thrombosis of the cavernous sinus

It may be caused by <u>spreading of infection from face</u>, <u>nasal cavities</u> and <u>paranasal</u> <u>air sinuses</u>.

This gives rise to the following symptoms.

- Severe pain in the eye and forehead
- involvement of the third, fourth and sixth cranial nerves resulting in paralysis of the muscles supplied.
- Marked oedema of the eyelids
- Exophthalmos.

Pulsating exophthalmos.

- A communication between the cavernous sinus and the internal carotid artery may occurs due to head injury.
- When this happens arterial blood rush into the cavernous sinus and creates force into connecting veins so
 - the **eyeball comes out and pulsates with each heart beat.** It is called the **pulsating exophthalmos**.
 - Orbital and congunctival edema occurs

PAROTID GLAND

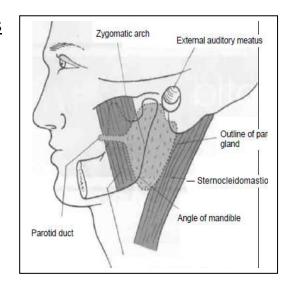
- The parotid is the largest of the salivary glands.
- It weighs about 15 g.
- It is situated **below the external acoustic meatus**, between the ramus of the mandibleand the sternocleidomastoid.

Parotid Capsule

The <u>investing layer of the deep cervical fascia forms</u> a capsule for the gland.

External Features

- The gland resembles a three sided pyramid.
- The apex is directed downwards.
- The gland has four surfaces
 - (1) Superior (base)
 - (2) Superficial;
 - (3) anteromedial; and
 - (4)posteromedial.



The surfaces are separated by three borders: (1) Anterior; (2) posterior; (3) medial.

SURFACES:

The *superficial surface* is the largest of the four surfaces. It is covered with

- Skin;
- superficial fascia
- parotid fascia

The anteromedial surface is related to:

- masseter;
- posteriorborder of the ramus of the mandible;
- medial pterygoid

posteromedial surface is related to:

• mastoid process, with the sternocleidomastoid

Borders:

The *anterior border* separates the superficial surface from the anteromedial surface. The *posterior border* separates the superficial surface from the posteromedial surface.

Medial border seperates anteromedial surface with posteromedial surface

Parotid Duct

- It is thick walled and is **about 5 cm long.**
- It emerges from the anterior border of the gland.
- It opens into the mouth opposite the upper second molar tooth.

Blood Supply

- The parotid gland is supplied by the **external carotid artery and its branches**.
- The veins drain into the external jugular vein.

Nerve Supply

Parasympathetic and sensory supply by

• auriculotemporal nerve.

Sympathetic nerve

• Derived from the plexus around the external carotid artery.

Lymphatic Drainage

parotid nodes

Clinical anatomy of parotid gland

Parotid swellings are **very painful** due to the unyielding nature of the parotid fascia.

Mumps is an infectious disease of the salivary glands (usually the parotid) caused by a specific virus.

Parotid abscess may be caused by spread of infection from the mouth cavity.

Parotidectomy- surgical removal of the parotid gland

Stones or calculi may form in the parotid duct and parotid gland. They block the secretion by gland.

Frey's syndrome or auriculotemporal nerve syndrome

- when person eats, same side cheek becomes red, hot and painful due to communication of parasympathetic with sensory fibers.

Mixed parotid tumour is a slowly growing painless tumour.

Malignant change of such a tumour also occurs

• It is indicated by <u>pain</u>, <u>rapid growth</u>, <u>involvement of the facial nerve</u>, <u>and</u> enlargement of cervical lymph nodes.

TEMPOROMANDIBULAR JOINT

This is a synovial joint of the condylar variety

Articular Surfaces

- mandibular fossa of the temporal bone:
- the head of the mandible.

Ligaments related to the joint

Fibrous capsule- It enclose the joint cavity

The lateral or temporomandibular ligament -

- attached above articular tubercle on temporal bone and below with neck of mandible
- strenghthens the lateral aspect of capsule

The sphenomandibular ligament

attached above with sphenoid bone and below with lingula of mandible.

The stylomandibular ligament

attached above with styloid process and below with angle of mandible

Articular Disc

The *articular disc* is an oval fibrous plate that divides the joint into an upper and a lower compartments.

RELATIONS OF TEMPOROMANDIBULAR JOINT

Lateral

Skin and fasciae

Medial:

• The tympanic plate

Anterior:

Lateral pterygoid muscle

Posterior

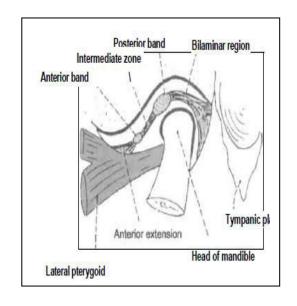
the external auditory meatus;

Superior

Middle cranial fossa,

Inferior:

Maxillary artery and vein



Blood Supply

- Branches from superficial temporal and maxillary arteries.
- Veins follow the arteries.

Nerve Supply

Auriculotemporal nerve and masseteric nerve

Muscles Producing Movements at TM Joint

Depression

- Depression is brought about mainly by the <u>lateral pterygoid</u>.
- The digastric, geniohyoid and mylohyoid muscles also help.
- It is also done passively by gravity.

Elevation

- Elevation is brought about by the masseter, the temporalis, and the medial pterygoid muscles of both sides.
- These are antigravity muscles.

Protrusionis done by the **lateral and medial pterygoids.**

Retractionis produced by the **posterior fibres of the temporalis**.

Lateral or side to side movements,

• By lateral pterygoid and medial pterygoid muscles.

CLINICAL ANATOMY

1.Dislocation of mandible

• During excessive opening of the mouth the head of the mandible of one or both sides may slips anteriorly.

2.Derangement of the articular disc

- May result from any injury.
- This gives rise to pain during movements of the jaw.

3.In operations on the joint, the seventh nerve should be preserved with care.

OTIC GANGLION

Introduction

- it is a peripheral parasympathetic ganglion
- It is related to the mandibular nerve, but functionally it is a part of the glossopharyngeal nerve

Size and Situation

It is 2 to 3 mm in size, and is situated in the infratemporal fossa just below foramen ovale.

Connections and Branches

- The motor or parasympathetic root is formed by the lesser petrosal nerve.
 - The preganglionic fibres are derived from the inferior salivary nucleus the ninth nerve, its tympanic branch, the tympanic plexus -the lesser petrosal nerve to reach the ganglion
 - Postganglionic pass through the auriculotemporal nerve to the parotid gland.
- The <u>sympathetic root</u> is derived from the <u>plexus on the middle meningeal</u> artery.
 - It contains postganglionic fibres arising in the superior cervical ganglion.
 - The fibres pass through the ganglion without relay and reach the parotid gland via the auriculotemporal nerve.
- The *sensory root* comes from the **auriculotemporal nerve** and is sensory to the parotid gland.

Other fibres passing through the ganglion are as follows.

- nerve to medial pterygoid
- chorda tympani

NASAL SEPTUM

The *nasal septum* is **median osseocartilaginous** partition between the two halves of the nasal cavity.

- On each side, it is covered by **mucous membrane**.
- It forms the **medial wall of both nasal cavities**.

The bony part is formed almost entirely by

- vomer, and
- perpendicular plate of the ethmoid.

The cartilaginous part is formed by

• septal cartilage, and

The lower margin of the septum is called the columella.

The septum has

- Four borders-superior, inferior, anterior and posterior
- Two surfaces- Right and left.

Arterial Supply

- **Anterosuperior part**is supplied by the anterierethmoidal artery
- Anteroinferiorpart:by the superior labial artery branch of facial artery.
- **Posterosuperior part**: by the posterior ethmoidal artery.
- Posteroinferior part: is supplied by the <u>spheno palatine artery</u>.

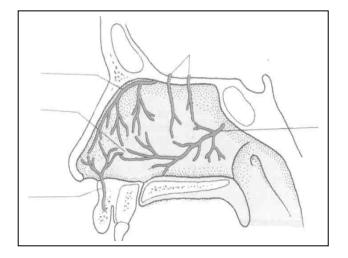
What is Kiesselbach's plexus?

The anteroinferior part of the septum contains anastomoses between superior labial branch of the facial artery, branch of sphenopalatine artery, and of anterior ethmoidal artery.

- These form a large capillary network called the Kiesselbach's plexus.
- This is a common site of bleeding from the nose also known as epistaxis
- It is known as *Little's area*.

Venous Drainage

- The veins form a plexus.
- The plexus drains into facial vein, sphenopalatine vein, pterygoid venous plexus.



Nerve Supply

General sensory nerves, arising from trigeminal nerve, are distributed to whole of the septum

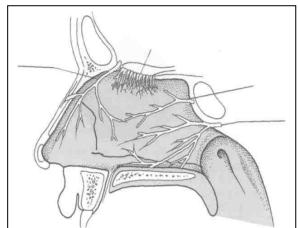
- anterior ethmoidal nerve.
- anterior superior alveolar nerve
- nasopalatine nerve

They carry sensations of pain, touch and temperature.

Olfactory nerves carry smell sensation.

Lymphatic Drainage

Anterior half to the submandibular nodes. Posterior half to the retropharyngeal and deep cervical nodes.



CLINICAL ANATOMY

- Little's area on the septum is a common site of bleeding from the nose or epistaxis.
- Pathological deviation of the nasal septum [DNS]
 - o It is responsible for repeated attacks of common cold, allergic rhinitis.
 - It requires surgical correction
- Rhinoscopy-
 - Examination of nasal cavity is known as rhinoscopy.

LATERAL WALL OF NOSE

The lateral wall of the nose is **irregular**.

The skeleton of the lateral wall is partly bony and partly cartilaginous.

The bony part is formed by following bones:

- (1)Nasal;
- (2) frontal process of maxilla;
- (3) lacrimal;
- (4) ethmoid with superior and middle conchae;
- (5) inferior nasal concha;

The cartilaginous part is formed by:

- Superior nasal cartilage;
- Inferior nasal cartilage; and
- 3 or 4 small cartilages of the ala.

Chonchae and Meatuses.

- The *inferior concha* is an independent bone.
- The *middle concha* and The *superior concha* is a projection from the medial surface of the ethmoidal labyrinth.

The inferior meatus lies below the inferior concha

nasolacrimal duct opens into it

The middle meatuslies below the middle concha.

It is having ethmoidal bulla, hiatus semilunaris.

It is having opening of

- Frontal air sinus
- Maxillary air sinus
- Anterior ethmoidal air sinus
- Middle ethmoidal air sinus

The superior meatus lies below the superior concha.

It receives the openings of the posterior ethmoidal air sinuses.

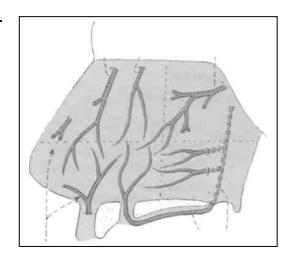
Arterial Supply of Lateral Wall

Anterosuperior quadrant is supplied by the anterior ethmoidal artery

Anteroinferior quadrant, is supplied by branches from the facial and greater palatine arteries

The posterosuperior quadrant, is supplied by the **sphenopalatine artery**.

The *posteroinferior quadrant* is supplied by branches from the **greater palatine artery**



Venous Drainage

The veins form a plexus which drain into facial vein; pharyngeal plexus of veins; pterygoid plexus of veins.

Nerve Supply

General sensory nerves from the **branches of trigeminal nerve** are distributed to whole of the lateral wall:

- anterior ethmoidal nerve
- anterior superior alveolar nerve
- greater palatine nerve

olfactory nerve for smell sensation

Lymphatic Drainage

- submandibular nodes,
- Retropharyngeal and upper deep cervical nodes.

CLINICAL ANATOMY

- Common cold or rhinitis is the commonest infection of the nose.
- The <u>paranasal air sinuses</u> may get infected from the nose. Maxillary sinusitis is the commonest of such infections.
- Hypertrophy of the mucosa over the inferior nasal concha is a <u>common</u> feature of allergic rhinitis, which is characterized by <u>sneezing</u>, <u>nasal blockage</u> and excessive watery discharge from the nose.

MAXILLARY SINUS

The maxillary sinus lies in the **body of the maxilla** and is the **largest** of all the paranasal sinuses.

It is pyramidal in shape.

- Base directed medially towards the lateral wall of the nose.
- **Apex** directed laterally in the zygomatic process of the maxilla.
- **Roof** is formed by the floor of orbit.
- *Floor* is formed by the alveolar process of the maxilla,
 - The floor is marked by elevations produced by the roots of the upper molar and premolar teeth

It *opens* into the middle meatus of the nose in the lower part of the hiatus semilunaris

The size of the sinus is variable. Average measurements are: height, 3.5 cm; width, 2.5 cm and anteroposterior depth- 3.5 cm

CLINICAL ANATOMY

Infection of a sinus is known as sinusitis.

- It causes headache and discharge from the nose.
- The maxillary sinus is most commonly involved.

Carcinoma of the maxillary sinus arises from the mucosal lining.

Symptoms depend on the direction of growth.

FACIAL NERVE

This is the seventh cranial nerve.

The fiber of nerve arise from four nuclei situated in the lower pons.

- Motor nucleus
- Superior salivatory nucleus
- Lacrimatory nucleus
- Nucleus of tractus soliterius

Cource and relation

The facial nerve attached to the brainstem by two roots motor and sensory

Reach the internal acaustic meatus

The first part is directed laterally

Second part runs backward in relation to the midial wall of middle ear

Third part is directed vertical downward Facial nerve leaves skull by passing through stylomastoid foramen

• It enters the **posteromedial surface of the parotid gland**, Behind the neck of the mandible it divides into its **five terminal branches**

Branches and Distribution

Within the facial canal:

- Greater petrosal nerve
- Nerve to the stapedius;
- Chorda tympani

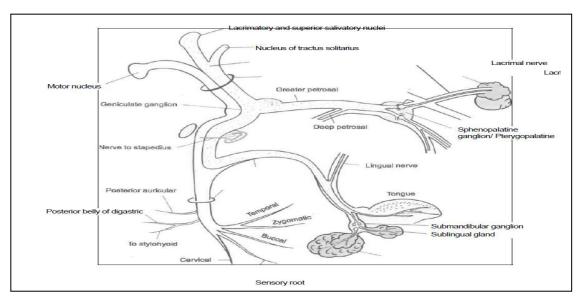
At the exit from the srylomastoid foramen:

- Posterior auricular;
- digastric; and

• stylohyoid.

Terminal branches within the parotid gland:

- Temporal;
- Zygomatic; Buccal Marginal mandibular; Cervical.



Bell's palsy. [Facial palsy]

In infranuclear lesions of the facial nerve, known as Bell's palsy.

- The whole of the face of the same side gets paralyzed.
- The face becomes asymmetrical and is deviated to the normal side.
- The affected side is **motionless**.
- Wrinkles disappear from the forehead.
- The eye cannot be closed.
- Any attempt to smile deviates the mouth to the normalside.
- During mastication, food accumulates between the teeth and the cheek.
- Articulation of labials is impaired.

In suprannclear lesions of the facial nerve;

- only the lower part of the opposite side of face is paralysed.
- The upper part with the **frontalis and orbicularis oculi** have **bilateral representation in the cerebral cortex** so do not affected

LACRIMAL APPARATUS

The structures related with **secretion and drainage of the lacrimal fluid** <u>combinely</u> known as the lacrimal apparatus.

It is made up of the **following parts**:

- Lacrimal gland and its ducts.
- Conjunctival sac.
- ❖ Lacrimal puncta and lacrimal canaliculi.
- Lacrimal sac.
- Nasolacrimal duct.

Lacrimal Gland

- ➤ It is *a serous gland* situated in the **lacrimal fossa** on the anterolateral part of the roof of the bony orbit.
- > The gland is 'J' shaped,
- > 10-12 lacrimal ducts open into the conjunctival sac
- The gland is supplied by the **lacrimal branch of the ophthalmic artery** and by the **lacrimal** *nerve*.
- > The lacrimal fluid secreted by the lacrimal gland flows into the conjunctival sac
- it lubricates the front of the eye and the deep surface of the lids.

Conjunctival Sac

The potential space between the palpebral and bulbar part of conjunctiva is the conjunctival sac.

Lacrimal Puncta and Canaliculi

- Each lacrimal canaliculus **begins at the** *lacrimal punctum*, and is 10 mm long.
- It has a vertical part and a horizontal part.
- > Both canaliculi open into the lacrimal sac

Lacrimal Sac

- > It is membranous sac situated in the lacrimal groove
- > Its upper end is blind. The lower end is continuous with the nasolacrimal duct.

Nasolacrimal Duct

- > It is a membranous passage
- It begins at the **lower end of the lacrimal sac**, runs downwards, backwards and laterally, and **opens into the inferior meatus of the nose**

Clinical anatomy

- ➤ In Bell's palsy , lacrimal gland <u>fail to secrete lacrimal fluid</u>
- > Inflammation of lacrimal sac is known as dacrocystitis
- ➤ **Epiphora** <u>overflow of tears from conjunctival sac to cheeks.</u> It occurs due to <u>hyperlacrimation or blockage of lacrimal passage</u>

THYROID GLAND

The thyroid is an endocrine gland, situated in the lower part of the front and sides of the neck.

• The gland consists of right and left lobes that are joined to each other by the *isthmus*

Each lobe measures

- about 5 cm x 2.5 cm x 2.5 cm,
- and the isthmus 1.2 cm x 1.2 cm.

On an average the gland weighs about 25 g.

Capsules of Thyroid

- 1. The **true** *capsule* is the <u>peripheral condensation of the connective tissue of the</u> gland.
- 2. The **false capsule**is derived from the <u>pretracheal layer of the deep cervical</u> fascia

Relations

The lobes are conical in shape having:

- Apex,
- Base
- Three surfaces, lateral, medial and posterior
- Two borders, anterior and posterior.

The *apex* is directed **upwards**

The **base** is on level with the 4th or 5th tracheal ring.

The *lateral* or *superficial surface* is convex, and is covered by:

- sternohyoid;
- superior belly of the omohyoid;
- sternothyroid; and
- sternocleidomastoid

Medial surface is related to- trachea and oesophagus;

Posterior surface is related to the carotid sheath;

Isthmus connects the **lower parts of the two lobes**.

Blood Supply

The thyroid gland is supplied by the superior and inferior thyroid arteries.

The superior thyroid artery is the branch of the external carotid artery

- It runs downwards and forwards
- It reach the upper pole of the lobe.
- Here it divides into anterior and posterior branches.
- The anterior branch
 - continues along the upper border of the isthmus
 - o It anastomose with anterior baranch of the opposite side.
- The **posterior branch** descends on the posterior border of the lobe
 - o It anastomoses with the ascending branch of the inferior thyroid artery

The *inferior thyroid artery* is a branch of the <u>thyrocervical trunk</u> It reach the lower pole of the gland.

- The artery divides into 4 to 5 glandular branches.
- One ascending branch anastomoses with the posterior branch of the superior thyroid artery.
- Sometimes (in 3% of individuals), the thyroid is also supplied by the *lowest thyroid artery.*

Venous Drainage

The thyroid is drained by the superior, middle and inferior thyroid veins.

Lymphatic Drainage

• deep cervical nodes

CLINICAL ANATOMY

Any swelling of the thyroid gland known as goitre

Removal of the thyroid is known as thyroidectomy

• It may be necessary in hyperthyroidism.or.thyrotoxicosis

In partial thyroidectomy, the posterior parts of both lobes are left behind.

- This avoids the risk
 - Simultaneous removal of the parathyroid.

Hypothyroidism causes cretinism in infants and myxoedema in adults.

Benign tumours of the gland may compress neighbouring structures, like the carotid sheath, the trachea

Malignant growths invade and damage neighbouring structures.

MIDDLE EAR

The middle ear is also called the **tympanic cavity**.

- The middle ear is a narrow air filled space situated in the petrous part of the temporal bone
- between the external ear and the internal ear

Shape and Size

The middle ear is shaped like a cube

Boundaries

The Roof or Tegmental Wall

- The roof separates the middle ear from the middle cranial fossa.
- It is formed by a thin plate of bone called the tegmen tympani

The Floor or Jugular Wall

- The floor is formed by a thin plate of bone
- Which separates the middle ear from the superior bulb of the internal jugular vein.

The Anterior Wall

The anterior wall is **narrow** due to the approximation of the medial and lateral walls It has the opening of the **auditory tube**

Posterior or Mastoid Wall

There is an opening or aditus

through which communication with the mastoid antrum

The Lateral or Membranous Wall

- The lateral wall separates the middle ear from the external ear.
- It is formed Mainly by the tympanic membrane

The Medial or Labyrinthine Wall

The medial wall separates the middle ear from the internal ear.

Clinical anatomy

Otitis Media- Inflamation of middle ear is known as otitis media

Throat infections commonly spread to the middle ear through the auditory tube and cause otitis media.

Otitis media is more common in children than in adults

NERVE SUPPLY AND LYMPHATIC DRAINAGE OF TONGUE

Nerve supply of tongue

It is two types

Motor supply

- ➤ All the muscles of tongue except palatoglossus are supplied by hypoglossal nerve.
- ➤ **Palatoglossus** is supplied by **cranial root of accessory nerve** via pharyngeal plexus.

Sensory supply

Anterior 2/3rd of the tongue

- General sensation by lingual nerve
- > Taste sensation by **chorda tympani nerve**

Posterior 1/3rd of the tongue

General sensation and taste sensation by glosopharyngeal nerve

Posterior most part of the tongue

General sensation and taste sensation by vegus nerve

Lymphatic drainage of tongue

Apical portion of tongue

It drains into submental group of lymphnodes

Marginal portions of anterior 2/3rd of the tongue

On each side drains into the submandibular group of lymph nodes

Cenral portion of anterior 2/3rd of the tongue

Drains into deep cervical group of lymph nodes

Posterior 1/3rd and root of tongue

> Bilaterally drains into the **deep cervical group** of lymph nodes

Applied anatomy

Cancer on posterior part of tongue

- > Spreads through lymphatics to both the sides of lymphnodes.
- ➤ It occurs due to huge communication with two sides.

> so poor prognosis

Cancer on anterior side of tongue

- > Does not spread to opposide side of lymphnodes till the late stage.
- Better prognosis than posterior side carcinoma.

PALATINE TONSIL

Palatine Tonsils are **lymphoid mass of tissue** situated in **tonsillar fossa** between palatoglossal and palaatopharyngeal arch.

External features

- Anterior border related to palatoglossal arch
- Posterior border related to palatopharyngeal arch
- ➤ **Upper pole** related to soft palate
- Lower pole related to tongue
- > Medial surface-
 - It is free and towards oropharynx.
 - It is having 12 to 15 tonsillar crypts.
 - The largest crypt is known as crypta magna or intertonsillar cleft.
- **Lateral surface** It is covered by capsule.

The structures related to lateral surface forms tonsillar bed. It is formed by...

- Pharyngobasilar fascia
- Buccopharyngeal fascia
- Superior constrictor muscle
- Styloglossus muscle
- Glossopharyngeal nerve
- Facial artery

Loose areolar tissue between tonsillar capsule and tonsillar bed is called as **peritonsillar space.**

Blood supply of tonsil

- > Tonsilar branch of facial artery [main artery]
- Branches from dorsal lingual artery, ascending pharyngeal artery and greater palatine artery.

Nerve supply

> Glosopharyngeal nerve

Lesser palatine nerves

Venous drainage

By paratonsillar vein into pharyngeal plexus of vein.

Lymphatic drainage

> Into deep cervical group of lymphnodes

Applied anatomy

- > Tonsillitis Inflammation of tonsil is known as tonsillitis.
 - It is mainly due to viral or bacterial infection. It is more common in children.
- ➤ Quensy- [peritonsillar abscess] collection of pus in the peritonsillar space.
- > Tonsillectomy Removal of tonsil is known as tonsillectomy.
 - bleeding after tonsillectomy is common. It occurs mainly due to damage to paratonsillar vein.

SOFT PALATE

The soft palate is **movable muscular fold** which is attached to posterior border of hard palate **separating nasopharynx from orpharynx**.

External features

Anterior surface- is concave and towards oral cavity

Posterior surface – is convex and towards nasal cavity

<u>Superior border</u> is attached to the posterior border of hard palate

Inferior border is free.

• small tongue like projection is hanging down from middle is called **uvula.**

Structure

It is made up of fold of mucous membrane enclosing five pairs of muscles.

Muscles of soft palate

Tensor veli palatine – tightens the soft palate

Levator veli palatine- elevates the soft palate

Palatoglossus- pulls up the root of tounge

Palatopharyngeus- raise the walls of pharynx during swallowing.

Musculus uvulae- pulls the uvula

Nerve supply

- All the muscles of soft palate are supplied by cranial root of accessory
 nerve via pharyngeal plexus [comes through vegus nerve] except tensor
 veli paltini which is supplied by mandibular nerve.
- Sensory supply by branches of maxillary nerve and glosopharyngeal nerve

Arterial supply

- Ascending palatine A. branch of facial artery
- Lesser palatine A. branch from maxillary A.
- Palatine branches of ascending pharyngeal A.

Venous drainage

Pharyngeal venous plexus and pterygoid venous plexus

Lymphatic drainage

Retropharyngeal and upper deep cervical group of lymphnodes.

Function of soft palate

- Separate oropharynx from nasopharynx during swallowing so that food does not enter the nose
- To modify the quality of voice
- Protect during sneezing and coughing

Applied anatomy

Paralysis of the soft palate [due to lesion of vagus nerve]results in...

- Nasal regurgitation of food and liquid
- Nasal twang in voice
- Deviation of uvula to normal side

MANDIBULAR NERVE

It is the largest Division of trigeminal nerve

It is mix variety of nerve. Sensory and motor both.

Course

It starts in middle cranial fossa

It comes out from cranial cavity through foramen ovale

After coming out Main trunk devides into anterior and posterior trunk

Branches

From Main trunk

- 1. Meningeal branch supplies dura mater
- 2. Nerve to medial pterygoid- supplies medial pterygoid muscle.
 - its fibers pass from otic ganglion and supplies tensor veli palatini

From anterior trunk

- 1. Massetric nerve- supply messeter muscle and temporomandibular joint
- 2. Nerve to lateral pterygoid- supply lateral pterygoid muscle
- 3. Deep temporal nerve- supply temporalis muscle
- 4. Buccal nerve it is the sensory branch

From posterior trunk [ALI]

- 1 Auriculotemporal nerve-
 - Supply <u>auricle</u> and temporal part of skin
 - Also supply parotid gland and temporomandibular joint
- 2. Lingual nerve
 - > sensory for anterior 2/3rd of tounge [taking general sensations]
- 3.Inferior alveolar nerve
 - it enters the **mandibular foramen** runs in mandibular canal
 - > It supplying mylohyoid muscle, lower teeth and gums
 - Comes out as mental nerve from mental foramen

Clinical

Reffered pain

 In case of cancer of tounge pain radiates to the ear and temporal fossa along the distribution of auriculotemporal nerve

Mandibular neuralgia

• Pain along the distribution of mandibular nerve



INTERPEDUNCULAR FOSSA

- It is situated at base of brain
- It is rhomboid shaped fossa

Boundry

- Anteriorly by optic chiasma and optic tracts
- > Posteriorly by pons
- On each side by crus cerebri

Content of fossa

- 1. **Tuber cinerium** which is raised area of grey matter
- 2. Two small spherical boddies known as mammillary bodies
- **3.** A **narrow stalk** which connects pituitary gland with **tuber cinerium** is called as **infundibulum**
- 4. Posterior perforated substance
- 5. Oculomotor nerve

INFERIOR CEREBELLAR PEDUNCLE

The <u>afferent and efferent fiber of cerebellum are grouped together on each side into</u> **three types of bundle called** cerebellar peduncles

- Superior cerebellar peduncles
- Middle cerebellar peduncles
- Inferior cerebellar peduncles

Inferior cerebellar peduncles

➤ It is formed on the posteriolateral aspect of the upper half of medulla oblongata.

It contains

Afferent fibers [ORSVC]

- Olivocerebeller fibers from olivery nucleus
- Reticulocerebeller fibers from reticular nucleus
- Spinocerebellar fibers from spinal cord to cerebellum
- Vestibule cerebellar fibers from vestibular nerve
- Cuneocerebeller fibers from cuneate nucleus

Efferent fibers [ORV]

- Cerebello olivary fibers
- Cerebello reticular fibers
- Cerebello vestibular fibers

INTERNAL CAPSULE

Internal capsule is compact bondle of projection fiber In horizontal section of cerebral hemisphere it appear as "v" shaped.

Situation

- Medially—thalamus and caudate nucleus
- Laterally—lentiform nucleus

Parts of internal capsule

It is devided in to **five parts**

- Anterior limb—lies between thalamus and lentiform nucleus
- Posterior limb—lies between thalamus and lentiform nucleus
- **Genu**-it is between anterior limb and posterior limb
- Retrolentiform part—lies behind the lentiform nucleus
- Sublentiform part—lies below lentiform nucleus

Fibers of the internal capsule

Motor fibers

Pyramidal fibers

Which are two types

- Corticonuclear fibers for head and neck—passing from genu
- Corticospinal fibers for upper limb, trunk, lowerlimb passing from posterior limb and situated from anterior to posterior

Extrapyramidal fibers occupying position near the corticospinal fibers.

Sensory fibers

They are thelamo-cortical fibers

Anatomy

- Anterior thalamic radiation from anterior limb. Connecting thalamus to frontal lobe
- **Superior thalamic radiation** from genu and posterior limb connecting thalamus to frontal and parital lobe
- **Posterior thalamic radiation** from retrolentiform part. connect the LGB to occipital lobe[**optic radiation**]
- **Inferior thalamic radiation** from sublentiform part. Connect the MGB to temporal lobe[auditory radiation]

Arterial supply

Branches from middle cerebral, anterior cerebral, internal carotid, posterior communicating and posterior cerebral arterys.

Clinical anatomy

Damage to internal capsule-

- It occurs due to haemorrhage.
- Haemorrhage occurs due to **damage of charcot's** artery which supply posterior limb of internal capsule.
- It leads to loss of sensation and paralysis of the opposite half of the body.

THIRD VENTRICLE

It is a slit like cavity situated between two thalami Boundries

Anterior wall -

- Anterior commissure
- Lamina terminalis

Floor

- > Optic chiasma
- Tuber cinerium and infundibulum
- Mammillary bodies
- Posterior perforated substance
- > Tegmentum of midbrain

Posterior wall

- Pineal gland
- Posterior commissure

Roof

> By ependyma [telachoroidia of 3rd ventricle]

Lateral wall

- > Larger upper part of lateral surface by medial surface of thalamus
- Smaller lower part of the lateral wall is by hypothalamus

Communication

- ➤ With lateralventricle by intraventricular foramen[of montro]
- ➤ With 4th ventricle by cerebral aqueduct[of sylvius]

It receives CSF from lateral ventricle transport it into to fourth vent.

<u>Recesses of the ventricle-</u> Cavity of 3rd ventricle extend into surrounding structure as pocket like prostration is called as recess.

They are as follow

- Anterior recess
- > optic recess
- > infundibular recess
- suprapineal recess
- pineal recess

Clinical anatomy

hydrocephalus or increased intra-cranial pressure

- 3rd ventricle is easily **obstructed** by local brain tumor or congenital defect
- Obstruction result in accumulation of CSF
- Intracranial pressure raised in adults and hypocephalus in children

4TH VENTRICLE

It is tent like cavity situated in posterior cranial fossa

It is situated in **front of cerebellum** and **behind the pons and upper part of medulla oblongata**

Boundaries

Lateral wall on each side

- Inferolateraly by inferior cerebellar peduncle
- Suprolaterly by superior cerebellar peduncle

Roof [posterior wall]

- Upper part by convergence of two superior cerebellar peduncles and thin shit of white matter known as superior medullary velum
- > Lower part by inferior medullary velum

FLOOR OF 4TH VENTRICLE

Floor

It is formed by posterior surface of pons and upper part of medulla.

It is **rhomboid** in shape

- Entire floor is devided into two halves by median sulcus
- On side of median sulcus there is elevation called median eminence
- Median eminence having oval swelling known as facial colliculus
- Lateral to median eminence there is sulcus limitance
- Stria medullaris devide the floor into upper and lower part

- In the lower part in the lower medullary part
 - Hypoglossal triangle above
 - Vegal triangle below
- Area between vegal triangle and gracile tubercle is known as area postreama.

Angle of 4th ventricle

➤ Four angle —superior,inferior,and two lateral angle

Recesses of fourth ventricle

- Two lateral recess
- Two lateral dorsal recess
- One median dorsal rrecess

Openings in the fourth ventricle

There are five openings

- Central openings in the roof-foramen magendie
- Two lateral opening in the roof-foramen lushka
- Central canal of medulla oblongata
- Central aqueduct of midbrain

Clinical anatomy

Medulloblastoma-

- Most **common tumor** in the region of 4th ventricle
- It is highly malignant.
- It do compression on vital centres located in the floor and cardiac arrhythmia, irregular respiration and vasomotor disturbance occure

Internal hydrocephalus

- It occur due to blockage of opening of 4th ventricle.
- CSF accumulate and produce internal hydrocephalus

LATERAL MEDULLARY SYNDROME

- Dorsolateral part of the medulla and inferior surface of cerebellum is supplied by posterior inferior cerebellar artery [pica]
- ➤ Thrombosis of posterior inferior cerebellar artery affects dorso lateral aspect of medulla and inferior surface of cerebellum
- Result in following signs and symptoms

Opposite side

• Loss of pain and temperature sensation of opposite side of trunk and limbs due to involvement of spinothelemic tract

Same side

- Loss of pain and temperature sensation same side of face due to involvement of the spinal nucleus of trigeminal nerve
- Paralysis of muscle of platelet, pharynx and larynx due to involvement of nucleus ambiguous
- Ataxia due to involvement of inferior cerebellar peduncle and cerebellum
- Horner's syndrome due to involvement of reticular formation

MEDIAL MEDULLARY SYNDROME

- > Paramedian part of the medulla is supplied by branches of vertebral artery
- Thrombosis of that branch affect paramidean aspect of medulla result in following sing and symptoms

Opposite side

- ➤ Loss of position and vibration sensation opposite side of body due to involvement of medial meniscus
- hemiplegia-paralysis of opposite side arm and leg due to damage to pyramid.

Same side

 Same side atrophy of the half of the tongue due to damage of hypoglossal nerve.

HEMISECTION OF THE SPINAL CORD OR BROWN SEQUARD SYNDROME

Effects of hemisection of spinal cord are as below

Below the level of hemisection

Same side

- Spastic paralysis due to involvement of pyramidal tract
- Loss of proprioception, vibration, fine touch due to involvement of dorsal columns

Opposite side

 Loss of pain and temperature sensation due to involvement of spinothalamic tract.

At the level of hemisection

Same side

- > Spastic paralysis due to involvement of pyramidal tract.
- Loss of proprioception ,vibration ,fine touch due to involvement of dorsal columns.
- ➤ Loss of pain and temperature sensation due to involvement of spinothelemic tract.

Opposite side-

no effect on opposite side at the level of hemisection

CORPUS CALLOSUM

It is the largest commissure of the brain.

- It is connecting two cerebral hemispheres.
- > Length: 10 cm
- ➤ It is having **300 million fibers**

External features

- In sagittal section of cerebrum, it is seen as "c" shped
- > It lies 4 cm behind the frontal pole and 6 cm anterior to posterior pole
- Superior aspect is convex and inferior aspect is concave

Parts of corpus callosum

- It is devided in 4 part
- From before to backward- rostrum, genu, body, splenium

Rostrum

- It is directed downward and backward from genu
- Fiber passing from this part connect orbital surface of two frontal lobes.

Genu

- It is **thick** and curved part.
- Fiber of genu connecting anterior parts of frontal lobes
- It forms fork like structure known as forceps minor.

Body/trunk

- It is main part of corpus calloosum
- It lies between genu and splenium
- Fibers of the body connect most of the **frontal lobe and anterior part of partial lobe of two hemisphers.**

Splenium

- ➤ It is most **posterior part** of corpus callosum.
- Fibers of splenium connect posterior part of parietal lobes, temporal and occipital lobes of two hemisphere
- Fibers connecting two occipital lobes forming a fork like structure called as forceps major

Function of corpus callosum

➤ It is responsible for transmission of information between two cerebral hemispheres

Applied

Split-brain syndrome

- If the corpus callosume is congenitally absent or surgically sectioned
- Then the person has two separate hemispheres this condition is known as **split brain syndrome**.
- In this case <u>person learns to perfume task with one hand he is unable to repeat</u> it with other hand

BLOOD SUPPLY TO BRAIN

Brain is supply by two systems of artery

- 1. Vertebral system having two vertebral artery
- 2. Carotid system having two internal carotid artery
- > These arteries of brain get interconnected and form circle of willis
- > It is the base of brain around interpeduncular fossa.

Circle of willis is formed:

- > Anteriorly -by anterior communicating artery and anterior cerebral arteries
- > Posteriorly -by basilar artery dividing into two posterior cerebral artery
- Latterly on each side- by posterior communicating artery which is connecting internal carotid artery with posterior cerebral artery.

Functional significance of circle of willis

Normally there is little or no mixing of blood stream of

- 1. Two vertebral artery in basilar arteries
- 2. Two anterior cerebral artery in anterior communicating arteries
- 3. Internal carotid and posterior cerebral arteries.
- ➤ Therefore, right half of brain is supplied by right vertebral and right internal carotid artery.
- And left half of brain is supplied by left vertebral and left internal carotid arteries
- ➤ If one of the major arteries of circle of willis is blocked, connection provide collateral circulation.

Applied

Aneurysms

- Abnormal dilation of arteries is known as aneurysms
- It occur mostly as sites where arteries join with each other
- In brain arteries it's common. It's berry shaped so named as berry aneurysms

Subarachnoid haemorrhage

- > If the artery rupture, it produces haemorrhage in Subarachnoid space
- it produce severe pain in head and mental confusion



BREAST

Breast or mammary gland

> The breast lies in the superficial fascia of the pectoral region

Extent

- Vertically extends from the second to sixth rib
- > Horizontally it extends from lateral border of sternum to the mid axillary line

Skin covers the gland

Conical projection on skin called Nipple

Skin surrounding base of nipple is pigmented forms a circular area called the areola

This region is rich in modified sebaceous glands

Breast parenchyma

- having tubule-alveolar arrangement. It secretes milk.
- > It consist of 15 to 20 lobes
- Each lobe having alveoli which are drained by lactiferous duct
- > Lactiferous ducts open into nipple

Stroma

- It is partly fibrous and partly fatty
- Fibrous part is formed by septa known as suspensory ligaments which connects skin with pectoral fascia
- Fatty part forms bulk of the gland

Blood supply

- By internal thoracic artery
- ➤ Lateral thoracic, superior thoracic artery and branch from posterior intercostal arteries.

LYMPHATIC DRAINAGE OF BREAST

> By lymph nodes and the lymphatics

Lymph nodes

There are mainly three groups of lymph nodes

The axillary group of lymph nodes

- anterior
- > posterior,
- lateral,
- > central,
- and apical groups

Internal mammary group of lymph nodes

Supra clavicular group, Posterior intercostal group of lymph nodes

Lymphatic vessels

> The superficial lymphatics

Which drain the skin over the breast except nipple and areola

Deep lymphatics

- Drain the parenchyma of the breast. also nipple and areola
- **❖** About 75% of lymph goes to axillary nodes
- 20% to internal mammary group of lymph nodes
- **❖** 5% into postrior intercostal nodes

Lymph from

- Anterior and posterior group goes into central and lateral groups
- From here it goes to apical group
- And finally to supra clavicular nodes

Clinical Of Breast

- The upper and outer quadrant of breast is a frequent site for carcinoma
- Incisions of breast are usually made radially to avoid injury to lactiferous ducts

Folding of skin

- when cancer cells infiltrate suspensory ligaments folding of skin occurs
- It leads to retraction of nipple

peau d'orange appearance

 Obstruction of lymphatics produce oedema of skin and orange color changing known as peau d'orange appearance

Spreading of cancer cells occur through lymphatics

Cancer spread to liver

It can spread through veins also

It spread to vertebrae and to other parts also

Self examination of breasts

- Inspect symmetry of breast and nipples
- Change in color of skin
- Retraction of nipple is a sign of cancer
- Any discharge from nipple
- Palpate four quadrents and see for any abnormal swelling
- See for lymph node swelling
- X-Ray of breast is known as mammogram
- > FNAC is safe and quick method for diagnosis of lesion of breast
- > **Self examination** is the way for early diagnosis and treatment

CLAVIPECTORAL FASCIA

Clavipectoral fascia is a **fibrous sheet** situated **deep to pectoralis major muscle**.

Extent-

Above -clavicle

Below- axillary fascia

Attachments

Medially- attached with 1st rib

Laterally- coracoids process

Above- attached with lips of <u>subclavian groove of clavicle</u>. **Here it splits to enclose subclavius muscle.**

Below- It splits to enclose pectoralis minor muscle

• It continues downward as suspensory ligament of axilla which is attached to dome of axillary fascia.

It helps to keep it pulled up.

Functional significance

> Act as a suspensory ligament of axilla to maintain its concavity.

Structures piercing clavipectoral fascia

- ➤ Lateral pectoral Nerve
- > Thoracoacromial artery
- > Cephalic vein
- ➤ Deep lymphatics of breast going towards apical group of axillary lymphnodes.

AXILLA BOUNDARY AND CONTENT

It is a **pyramidal space** situated between the upper part of arm and the chest wall **It has**

> Apex, a base, four walls - anterior, posterior, medial and lateral

Apex

It is directed upwards towards the root of neck

It's not pointed. It's a triangular interval

Bounded by

- ➤ Anteriorly by clavicle
- Posteriorly by scapula
- Medially by a rib

Base

It's directed downwards

Formed by skin, superficial and axillary fascia

Anterior wall

- Pectoralis major
- Clavipectoral fascia
- Pectoralis minor

Posterior wall

- Subscapularis
- > Teres major
- Latissmus dorsi

Medial wall

- Upper four ribs with their intercostal muscles
- > Serratus anterior muscle

Lateral wall

It is very narrow. Anterior and posterior walls converge on it It is formed by

Bicipital groove, upper part of shaft of humerus

Contents of axilla

- Axillary artery and its branches
- Axillary vein and its tributaries
- Part of brachial plexus
- Axillary lymph nodes
- Fat and areolar tissue

AXILLARY ARTERY

It is the continuation of subclavian artery Extends

• From outer border of the first rib To lower border of teres major

Pectoralis minor muscle cross the artery and divides it into three parts

- First part superior to the muscle
- Second part posterior to muscle
- Third part inferior to muscle

RELATION OF AXILLARY ARTERY WITH BRACHIAL PLEXUS

First part

Anterior-lateral pectoral nerve and loop of communication between lateral and medial pectoral nerve

Posterior- Medial cord with medial pectoral nerve

Lateral - lateral and posterior cord

Second part

- Posterior Posterior cord
- Lateral Lateral cord
- Medial- Medial cord

Third part

Posterior – Radial nerve and axilary nerve

Lateral- lateral root of median nerve and musculocutenious nerve

Medialy-medial cutaneous nerve of arm and medial cutaneous nerve of fore arm

ERB'S PALSY

Site of injury- Erb's point

6 nerves meet here it is situated in upper trunk of the brachial plexus

Cause of injury damage at shoulder due to

- Birth injury
- Fall on the shoulder
- Anesthesia

Nerve root involved - mainly c5 and partly c6

Muscle paralysed-

Mainly

- biceps brachi
- deltoid,
- brachialis,
- brachioradialis

Partly - supra spinatus and supinator

Deformity-

- Arm is adducted and medially rotated
- Forearm is extended and pronated

Disability

- **Abduction and lateral rotation** of the arm is lost
- Flaxion and supination of forearm is lost
- Biceps and supinator jerks lost

KLUMPKE'S PARALYSIS-

Site of injury- lower trunk of brachial plexus

Nerve root involved - mainly T1 and partly C8

Muscles paralysed

- Intrinsic muscles of hand
- Ulner flaxors of wrist and finger

Deformity

- Claw hand
- In claw hand there is hyperextansion at metacarpo phalangeal joints and flexion at inter phalangeal jonts

Disability

- Complete claw hand
- Cutenious sensation loss over ulner border of fore arm and hand
- Horner's syndrome
 - Ptosis, miosis, anhydrosis, enopthalmos

Vasomotor changes

- Skin becomes warm due to arterio dilatation
- Skin becomes dry due to loss of sweating which occurs due to loss of sympathetic activity

Trophic changes

- Long duration paralysis Lead to dry and scaly skin
- Nails crack easily

DELTOID MUSCLE

Origin

- Anterior border of lateral one third of clavicle
- Lateral border of acromian process
- Lower lip of spine of scpula

Insertion

• Deltoid tuberosity of humerus

Nerve supply

Axillary nerve

Action

- Multipinnate acromial fibers are powerful abductor of the arm at sholder joint up to ninty degree
- Anterior fibers are flaxor and medial rotator of arm
- Posterior fiber are extensor and lateral rotators of arm

Structure under cover of deltoid

- Upper end of humerus
- Coracoids process
- Musculo tendinous cuff
- Origin of bisceps choraco brachialis and triceps
- Anterior and posterior circumflex humeral artery

Clinical anatomy

- Intramuscular injection often given in deltoid
- Axilary nerve may get demaged due to dislocation of sholder joint or fracture at surgical neck of humerus then deltoid is paralysed and actions of deltoid lost

Musculo tendinous cuff(rotatory cuff)

It is a fibrous sheeth formed by the tendons crossing shoulder joint

This tendons while crossing shoulder joint **flattend and join with each other and also** with joint capsule

Muscles which form rotator cuff are

- Subscapularis
- Supraspinatus
- Infraspinatus
- Teres minor

This muscle are originated from scapula

Inserted on humerus

Cuff gives strength to the capsule of the shoulder all around except inferiorly That's why dislocation of humerus most commonly occurs in downward direction.

BICEPS BRACHI MUSCLE

It is the muscle of anterior compartment of arm Origin

- Short head from coracoids process along with coraco brachialis
- Long head from supra glinoid tubercle

Incertion

- Redial tuberosity-posterior rough part
- And bicipital aponeurosis whitch is extension of tendon extend to ulna and separates median cubital vain from brachial artery

Nerve supply

• Musculo cutaneous nerve

Action

- > It is stong supinator of fore arm
- > Flexion of elbow

Anatomy

- > Short head- is a flexor of arm
- > Long head-prevents upward displacements of humerus

Applied

In erb's palsy damage occurs at erb's point and biceps muscle is affected So flaxion and supination of fore arm is affected.

ANASTOMOSIS AROUND THE ELBOW JOINT

Anastomosis around elbow joint links brachial artery with upper end of radial and ulnar artery

In front of the lateral epicondyle of the humerus

Anterior descending artery (branch of profunda brachii artery)
With
radial recurrent artery (branch of radial artery)

behind lateral epicondyle of the humerus

posterior descending artery (branch of profunda brachii artery) with interosseous recurrent artery (branch of posterior interosseous artery)

infront of medial epicondyle of humerus

inferior ulnar collateral artery (branch of brachial artery) with anterior ulnar recurrent artery (branch of ulnar artery)

behind medial epicondyle of humerus

superior ulnar collateral artery (branch of brachial artery) with posterior ulnar recurrent artery (branch of ulnar artery)

CUBITAL FOSSA

it is triangular fossa situated on the front of elbow boundaries

- > laterally- brachioradialis
- medially- pronator teres
- base- by an imaginary line joining epicondyles of humerus
- > apex- formed by meeting point of lateral and medial boundries.
- > Roof- skin, superficial fascia, deep fascia and bicipital aponeurosis
- > Floor by brachialis and supinator

Contents

From medial to lateral side

MBBS

- Median nerve
- Brachial artery
- Biceps brachii tendon
- Superficial branch of radial nerve

Clinical anatomy

Median cubital vein is used for intravenous injection

Blood pressure is recorded by auscultating brachial artery

BRACHIORADIALIS MUSCLE

It is the muscle of forearm

Origin-

from lateral supracondylar ridge of humerus

Insertion-

> styloid process of radius

Nerve supply

Radial nerve

Action

- > Flexion of forearm at elbow joint
- > Rotate forearm to midprone position from supine or prone position

CARPAL TUNNEL SYNDROME

It is caused by compression of median nerve in the carpel tunnel In this syndrome

Motor, sensory, vasomotor and trophic changes occur

Motor changes

- Wasting of thener eminence
- Ape like thumb deformity
- Loss of opposition of thumb
- Partial clawing due to paralysis of 1st and 2nd lumbricles

Sensory changes

Loss of sensations from lateral 3 and half digits

Vasomotor changes

- Skin becomes warm due to arteriodilatation
- Skin becomes dry due to loss of sweating which occurs due to loss of sympathetic activity

Trophic changes

- Long duration paralysis Lead to dry and scaly skin
- Nails crack easily

It occurs both in males and females between age of 25 and 70

- Main complain is pain
- It occurs intermittently over the distribution of median nerve
- Frequently occurs at night
- It is more common due to excessive working on computer

ULNAR NERVE IN HAND

Ulnar Nerve is the Main Nerve In the hand

Course

- It passes from <u>superficial to the flexor retinaculum</u>
- It ends by dividing into superficial and deep branch

Relations

At wrist- superficial to flexor retinaculum It is in relation to ulnar vessels Here it decides into two branch

Branches and supply

Superficial branch Supply

- ➤ Muscle- Palmaris brevis
- Cutaneous supply to medial one and half fingers

Deep branch supply

Muscles

- > Hypothener muscles
 - Flexor digiti minimi
 - Abductor digiti minimi
 - Opponens digiti minimi
- > 4 Palmer interrossei
- > 4 dorsal interrossei
- > 3 and 4th lumbricals
- > Adductor pollicis

Applied anatomy

Ulnar nerve lesion at the wrist joint

- > It produce ulnar nerve claw hand
- Hyperextention at the metacarpophalangeal joints and flexion at interphalangeal joint
- > Involving little and ring finger

> Intermetacarpel space increased due to wasting of introsserous muscles

At wrist joint injury profundus muscle is not paralyzed so flexion at terminal phalanges occur more

Sensory changes

- Sensory loss of medial one third of Palm
- > medial one and half finger
- Medial half of dorsum of hand

Vasomotor changes

- Skin becomes warm due to arteriodilatation
- Skin becomes dry due to loss of sweating which occurs due to loss of sympathetic activity

Trophic changes

- Long duration paralysis Lead to dry and scaly skin
- Nails crack easily

Disability

- Person is unable to spread out fingers due to paralysis of dorsal interrossei
- Addction of thumb is lost
- Movement of ring and little fingers affected

FIRST CARPO METACARPAL JOINT

It is the carpometacarpal joint having separate joint cavity

Type

Its saddle variety of synovial joint

Articular surface

- The distal surface of trapezium
- Proximal surface of the first metacarpal bone

Ligaments

Anatomy

Capsular ligament – It surrounds the joint

Lateral ligament - strengthens the capsule from lateral side

Anterior ligament

Posterior ligament

Relations

Anteriorly - muscles of thener eminence

Posteriorly - extensors of thumb

Medially - first dorsal interossie muscle

Laterally- tendon of abductor pollicis longus

Blood supply

Radial vessels

Nerve supply

 Median nerve supplies the capsule of the joint

Movements

Flexion- flexor pollicis bravis Opponens polices

Extension – Extensor pollicis brevis

Extensor pollicis longus

Opposition – Opponens polices

Flexor pollicis bravis

Abduction – Abductor pollicis brevis

Abductor pollicis longus

Adduction – Adductor pollicis

Applied

First carpo metacarpal joint can undergo degenerative changes with age

It produces pain at the base of the thumb

SUPINATION AND PRONATION

Supination and pronation are rotators movements of the forearm/hand

❖ In semiflexed elbow, the palm is turned upwards is supination

And downwards is pronation

✓ <u>In anatomical position palm is facing forward is **supination** and facing **backward** is pronation</u>

Joints involved in this movement is

Superior and inferior radio-ulnar joint

Supination

- It is more powerful than pronation because it is antigravity movement
- It is responsible for screwing movement of hand
- It is done by supinator muscle and biceps brachi muscle
- During supination radius and ulna are parallel to each other

Pronation

- > In semiflexed elbow palm facing downwards is pronation.
- > It is towards gravity
- > It is mainly done by **pronator quadratus**
- Also by pronator teres
- During pronation radius cross over the ulna

Clinical anatomy

Synostosis

- When upper end of radius and ulna fused known as synostosis
- > In this condition pronation is not possible

SUPERFICIAL PALMER ARCH

Superficial and deep Palmer arch represents the anastomosis between the ulnar and radial artery

Formation

- > Superficial Palmer arch is formed as the direct continuation of the ulnar artery
- > The arch is completed by superficial Palmer branch of radial artery

Relations

- It lies deep to palmaris Bravis and Palmer aponeurosis
- It lies superficial to flexor tendons of the fingers and lumbricals

Branches

- Three common digital and one proper digital branch Supplying medial 3 and half fingers
 - Digital arteries are joined with deep Palmer arch by Palmer metacarpal arteries

DEEP PALMER ARCH

It is connecting the radial artery and ulnar artery Formation

- It is formed by the terminal part of radial artery
- > And completed medially by deep branch of ulnar artery

Relations

- > It lies deep to flexor tendons of fingers and lumbricals.
- > It lies on the metacarpals and interrossei.

Branches

- Three Palmer metacarpal arteries which join with common digital branches of superficial Palmer arch
- Three perforating digital arteries
- Recurrent branches for supplying carpal bones and joints

FLEXOR RETINACULUM

It is the strong fibrous bend which is present at flexor aspect of wrist and carpal bones

It converts anterior concavity of carpal bones into a tunnel

Attachments

Medially - Pisiform bone and Hook of hamate

Laterally- Scaphoid and Trapezium

Retinaculum having slip

Lateral deep slip - Form a tunnel from which tendon of flexor Carpi radialis pass

Medial superficial slip - Ulnar vessels and nerve pass deep to the slip

Relations

Structure passing superficial to flexor retinaculum

- Palmaris longus tendon
- Palmer cutaneous branch of the median nerve
- Palmer cutaneous branch of ulnar nerve
- Ulnar vessels and nerve

Structure passing deep to the flexor retinaculum

- Median nerve
- Four tendons of flexor digitorum superficialis
- Four tendons of flexor digitorum profundus
- Tendon of flexor pollicis longus
- Ulnar bursa
- Radial bursa
- Tendon of flexor Carpi radialis

EXTENSOR RETINACULUM

Deep fascia on the back of wrist is thickened to form **Extensor retinaculum**

It is oblique band. It is directed downwards and medially

Attachments

Laterally - lower part of radius

Medially- styloid process of ulna, Triguetral and pisiform bone

Anatomy

The retinaculum sends septa which are attached on the posterior surface of radius

So six compartments are formed

Content

1st Abductor pollicis longus

Extensor pollicis brevis

2nd Extensor Carpi radialis longus

Extensor Carpi radialis brevis

3rd Extensor pollicis longus

4th Extensor digitorum

Extensor indicis

Posterior interosseous nerve Anterior interosseous artery

5th Extensor digiti minimi 6th Extensor Carpi ulnaris



THE INFERIOR APERTURE/OUTLET OF THE THORAX/

It separate thorax from abdominal cavity. That is diaphragm.

Boundaries

Anteriorly: Infrasternal angle

Posteriorly: Twelfth thorasic vertebra. **On each side**: Seventh to twelfth ribs. **Structures passing through the diaphragm**

There are three large, and several small, openings part of the diaphragm.

Large opening in the diaphragm.

- > T8 level Vena caval opening
 - Inferior vena cava
 - Branch of right phrenic Nerve
- T10 level Oesophageal opening
 - Oesophagous
 - Vagus nerve
 - Oesophageal branch of left gastric artery with some oesophageal veins
- > T12 level Aortic opening
 - Aorta
 - Thorasic duct
 - Azygous vein

Small Openings in the Diaphragm

medial lumbocostal arch.

• The sympathetic chain passes from the thorax to the abdomen behind the medial arcuate ligament also called the medial lumbocostal arch.

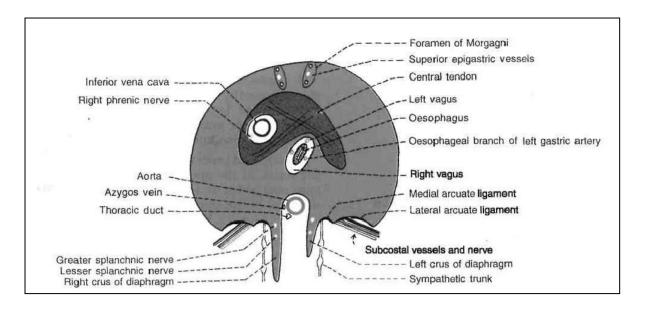
lateral lumbocostal arch

• The subcostal nerve and vessels pass behind the lateral arcuate ligament or lateral lumbocostal arch.

foramen of Morgagni

➤ The gap between the xiphoid, 7thcostal cartilage and origins of the diaphragm is foramen of morgagni.

The superior epigastric vessels and lymphatics passes through it.



RESPIRATORY MOVEMENTS

The lungs expand passively during inspiration and retract during expiration.

Principles of Movements

pump-handle movements.

- ➤ The anterior end of the rib is **lower** than the posterior end.
- ➤ Therefore, during elevation of the rib, the anterior end also moves forwards.
- In this way, the <u>anteroposterior diameter of the</u> <u>thorax is increased</u>.
- ➤ Along with the up and down movements of the ribs, the **body of the sternum** also moves up and down called **pump-handle movement**.



Partly by elevation of the seventh to tenth ribs

'bucket-handle' movements

- ➤ The middle of the shaft of the rib lies at a lower level than the plane passing through the anterior and posterior end of the ribs.
- > Therefore, during elevation of the rib, the shaft moves outwards.
- This causes <u>increase</u> in the <u>transverse diameter of the thorax</u> called <u>'bucket-handle' movements</u>.
 - Mainly by the seventh to tenth ribs Partly by elevation of the second to sixth

The vertical diameter is increased

It is done by downward movement of the diaphragm.

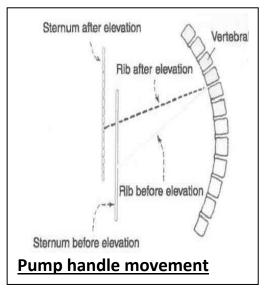
Clinical Anatomy

Dyspnoea means Difficulty in breathing

> the patients are **most comfortable** on sitting position.

The diaphragm is lowest while sitting.

The patient is quite comfortable as the effort required for inspiration is the least



INTER COSTAL SPACE

The gap between the ribs is called intercostals space.

➤ They are filled by the intercostal muscles and contain the intercostal nerves, vessels and lymphatics.

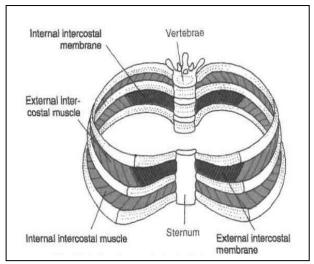
Intercostal Muscles-

- External intercostal muscle,
- Internal intercostal muscle, and
- Transversus thoracis muscle
 - Transversus thoracis is divisible into three parts
 - Subcostalis
 - Intercostalis intimi
 - Sternocostalis.

Direction of Fibres

IN THE ANTERIOR PART OF THE INTERCOSTAL SPACE:

- 1.The fibres of the **external intercostal muscle** Run downwards, forwards and medially
- 2.The fibres of the **internal intercostal** run downwards, backwards and laterally, at right angle to the external intercostal.
- 3. The fibres of the **transversus thoracis** run in **same direction** as those of the **internal intercostal**



Nerve Supply

intercostal muscles are supplied by **the intercostals nerves** of the spaces in which they lie.

Actions of the Intercostal Muscles

The main action of the intercostal muscles is to prevent retraction or bulging of the intercostal spaces

Intercostal Nerves

- The **intercostal nerves** are the **anterior primary rami** of <u>thoracic **1 to 11**</u> spinal nerves.
- The <u>anterior primary ramus</u> of the **12th thoracic nerve** forms **the subcostal nerve**.

The relationship of structures in the **costal groove** from **above downwards is vein-artery-nerve (VAN)**

Intrercostal Arteries

- Each intercostal space contains **one** <u>posterior inter-costal artery with its</u> collateral branch and **two anterior intercostals arteries**.
- > Greater part of the space is supplied by **posterior intercostal artery.**
- ➤ They are 11 **posterior intercostal artery** in number on each side. One in each space.

Intercostal Veins

- There are two anterior intercostal veins in each of the upper nine spaces.
- There is **one** *posterior intercostal vein* and **one** *collateral vein* in each intercostal space.

Each vein accompanies the corresponding artery and lies superior to the artery.

Lymphatics of an Intercostal Space

- Lymphatics from the anterior part of the spaces pass to the anterior intercostal or internal mammary lodes.
- Lymphatics from the posterior part of the space pass to the posterior intercostal nodes.

THE AZYGOS VEIN

It forms an important channel connecting the superior and inferior venae cavae. The term 'azygos' means unpaired.

Formation

The azygos vein is **formed by union** of

The lumbar azygos, Right subcostal and Right ascending lumbar veins.

Occasionally the lumbar azygos vein is absent.

Course

The azygos vein enters the thorax by passing through the aortic opening of the diaphragm.

The azygos vein then ascends up to fourth thoracic Vertebra

It arches forwards over the root of the right lung.

It ends by joining the posterior aspect of the superior vena cava.

Relations.

Posteriorly: Lower eight thoracic vertebrae

To the right: Right lung and pleura

To the left:

- Thoracic duct and aorta in lower part.
- Oesophagus and trachea in the upper part.

Tributaries

- Right superior intercostal vein
- > Fifth to eleventh right posterior intercostal veins
- Hemiazygos vein
- Accessory hemiazygos vein

CLINICAL ANATOMY

In superior vena caval obstruction, azygos vein is main channel which transmits the blood from the upper half of the body to to the inferior vena cava.

PLEURA AND ITS APPLIED

Pleura is a serous membrane.

It has two layers.

- Outer layer is the parietal pleura.
- > Inner layer is visceral pleura

The two layers are continuous with each other around the hilum of the lung.

There is a potential space between two layers known as the pleural cavity

visceral pleura

- visceral pleura covers the surface of the lung, except at the hilum.
- Along the **attachment of the pulmonary ligament** where it is continuous with the parietal pleura.
- > It is firmly adherent to the lung and cannot be separated from it.

The Parietal Pleura

The parietal pleura is **thicker** than the *visceral pleura*, It is subdivided into **four parts**:

- > costal,
- diaphragmatic,
- > mediastinal, and
- > cervical

The costal pleura lines the thoracic wall related to ribs and intercostal spaces.

The mediastinal pleura lines the mediastinal surface of lung

➤ It is reflected over the Hilum and becomes continuous with the *visceral pleura* around the hilum.

<u>The cervical pleura</u> extends into the neck, above the first costal cartilage and clavicle.

It covers the apex of the lung.

<u>Diaphragmatic pleura</u> lines the superior aspect of diaphragm.

➤ It covers the base of the lung. It is continuous with mediastinal pleura medially and costal pleura laterally.

The Pulmonary Ligament

The parietal pleura surrounding the root of the **lung extends downwards** beyond the **root as a fold** called the **pulmonary ligament**.

It provides a dead space into which the <u>ulmonary veins can expand during increased</u> <u>venous return as in exercise</u>.

RECESSES OF PLEURA

There are **two folds of recesses** of parietal plura.

Costomediastinal recess-

- > It is between the costal and mediastinal plura.
- It lies behind the sternum and costal cartilages.

This recess is filled up by the anterior margin of lungs.

It is filled up during quite breathing also.

Costodiaphragmatic recess-

It lies between the costal and diaphragmatic Plura.

Vertically it measures about 5 cm.

- It extends from eighth to tenth ribs along mid axillary line.
- ➤ These recesses act as a **reserve spaces for the lung** to <u>Expand during deep</u> inspiration.

So they are **well defined in expiration** and not in deep inspiration.

Nerve Supply of the Pleura

Parital plura.

- Intercostal and phrenic nerves supply parital plura.
- > The parietal pleura is pain sensitive.

Viceral Pleura

- > It is upplied by autonomic nerves.
- > The sympathetic nerves from 2nd to 5th spinal Segments.
- > Parasympathetic nerves from the vagus nerve.
- This part of the pleura is **not sensitive** to pain.

Blood Supply and Lymphatic Drainage of the Pleura

The parietal pleura supplied by intercostal arteries.

The veins drain mostly into the azygos and internal thoracic veins.

The lymphatics drain into the intercostals nodes.

The Viceral Pleura is supplied by the bronchial arteries the veins drain into bronchial veins.

The lymphatics drain into bronchopulmonary lymphnodes.

CLINICAL ANATOMY OF PLEURA

Pleurisy-

This is inflammation of the pleura.

Pleurisy accompaneid by collection of fluid in the pleural cavity.

The condition is called the **pleural effusion**.

➤ It cause obliteration of costodiaphragmetic recess.

Pneumothorax. Presence of air in the pleural cavity.

Haemothorax. Presence of blood in the pleural cavity.

Hydropneumothorax Presence of both fluid and air in the pleural cavity.

Empyema Presence of pus in the pleural cavity.

Paracentesis thoracis.

- Aspiration of fluid from the pleural cavity is called *paracentesis thoracis*.
- It is usually done in the eighth intercostal space in the midaxillary line.
- The needle is passed through the lower part of the space to avoid injury to neurovascular bundle.

Reffered pain

Costal plurae Irritation cause reffered pain along thorax and Abdominal wall.

Mediastinal and diaphragmetic plura Irritation cause <u>referred pain on the tip of</u> Shoulders.

ROOT OF THE LUNG

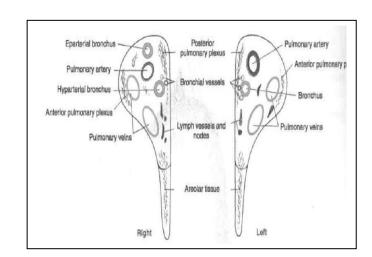
Root of the lung is a **short, broad pedicle** which **connects** the medial surface of the lung to the mediastinum.

> It is formed by structures which either enter or come out of the lung.

Contents

The root is made up of the following structures:

- Principal bronchus on the left side, and eparterial and hyparterial bronchi on right side.
- One pulmonary artery.
- Two pulmonary veins, superior and inferior.
- Bronchial arteries, one on the right side and two on the left side.
- Bronchial veins.
- Anterior and posterior pulmonary plexuses of nerves.
- Lymphatics of the lung.
- Bronchopulmonary lymph nodes.
- Areolar tissue.



Arrangement of Structures in the Root

From before backwards. It is similar on the two sides

[VAB_]

- Superior pulmonary vein
- Pulmonary artery
- Bronchus

From above downwards. It is different on the two sides.

Right side

- Eparterial bronchus
- Pulmonary artery
- Hyparterial bronchus
- Inferior pulmonary vein

Left side

- Pulmonary artery
- Bronchus
- Inferior pulmonary vein

Relations of the Root

Common on the two sides

Anterior

Phrenic nerves

Posterior

• Vagus nerve

Inferior

> Pulmonary ligament

Superior Relation

On Right side – Terminal part of azygous vein

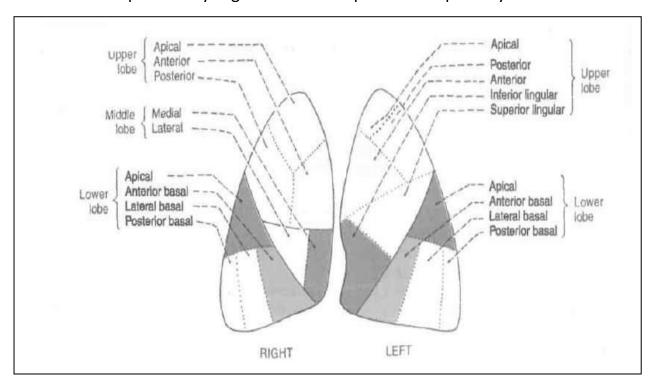
On Left side – Arch of Aorta

BRONCHOPULMONARY SEGMENTS

These are well defined anatomic, functional and surgical Sectors of the lung.

> Each one of which is provided by a tertiary bronchus.

- ➤ Each segment is pyramidal in shape with its apex directed towards the root of the lung.
- Each segment has a tertiary bronchus, Segmental artery, autonomic nerves and lymphyessels.
- There are 10 segments on the right side and 10 on the left side.
- Bronchopulmonary segments are independent respiratory units.



Clinical anatomy

1.Usually the <u>infection of a segment remains restricted to bronchopulmonary</u> segment

But infections like tuberculosis may spread from one segment to another.

Knowledge of the bronchopulmonary segment helps in:

- Surgical removal of a segment
- postural drainage.
- Bronchoscopy

SINUSES OF PERICARDIUM

Transverse sinus of pericardium

Anatomy

The **epicardium** at the roots of the great vessels is arranged in form of two tubes.

- The arterial tube encloses the ascending aorta and the pulmonary trunk at the arterial end of the heart tube
- **venous tube** encloses the venae cavae and pulmonary veins at the venous end of the heart tube.

The passage between the two tubes is known as the transverse sinus.

The *transverse sinus* is a horizontal gap between arterial and venous ends of the heart tube.

It is bounded

Anteriorly- ascending aorta and pulmonary trunk Posteriorly- superior vena cava Each side - it opens into pericardial cavity

oblique pericardial sinus

- During development As the heart increases in size and these veins separate out
- Pericardial reflection surrounds all of them and forms the oblique pericardial sinus.

This is situated posterior to the left atrium.

The *oblique sinus* is a narrow gap behind the heart. It is bounded

Anteriorly - Left atrium

Posteriorly - Parietal pericardium.

On the right and left sides it is bounded by reflections of pericardium it opens into pericardial cavity.

THE RIGHT ATRIUM

> The right atrium is the right upper chamber of the heart.

- ➤ It receives venous blood from the whole body, pumps it to the right ventricle **External Features**
 - ➤ The chamber receiving the superior vena cava at the upper end and the inferior vena cava at the lower end.
 - > right auricle.
 - The upper end is prolonged to the left to form the right *auricle*.

sulcus terminalis

- Along the right border of the atrium there is a shallow vertical groove which passes from the superior vena cava to the inferior vena cava.
- This groove is called the *sulcus terminalis*.
- It is produced by an internal muscular ridge called the crista terminalis

The upper part of the sulcus contains the *sinuatrial or SA node* which acts as the pacemaker of the heart.

The right atrioventricular groove

➤ The right atrioventricular groove separates the right atrium from the right ventricle

Tributaries or Inlets of the Right Atrium

- Superior vena cava,
- inferior vena cava,
- coronary sinus,
- anterior cardiac veins,
- venae cordis minimi (Thebesian veins),
- sometimes the right marginal vein.

Right Atrioventricular Orifice

- Blood passes out of the right atrium through the right atrioventricular or tricuspid orifice and goes to the right ventricle.
- ➤ The tricuspid orifice is guarded by the **tricuspid valve** which maintains unidirectional flow of blood

Internal Features

Anatomy

• The interior of the right atrium can be broadly divided into the following three parts.

The Smooth Posterior Part

- Most of tributeries opens into it
- Superior vena cava, inferior venacava, coronary sinus open into it
- Intervenous tubercle of lower is small projection. During embryonic life it directs blood from superior venacava to right ventricle.

Rough anterior part

• It is rough due to transverse muscular ridges called musculi pectinati

Interatrial Septum

- Developmentally it is derived from the septum primum and septum secundum.
- It presents the **fossa ovalis** and limbus fossa ovalis.

Clinical anatomy

Foramen ovale may remain open after birth leads to mixing of blood of right atrium and left atrium.

BLOOD SUPPLY OF HEART

- Heart is supplied by two coronary arteries
- They origin from aorta.

Right coronary artery

Origin- anterior aortic sulcus

Course-

- it runs forward
- Then downwards in the right coronary sulcus
- It wind rounds inferior border and reach diaphragmetic surface
- Reach up to posterior inter ventricular groove

Termination -

By anastomosing with circumflex branch of left coronary artery

Branches -

- Marginal
- Posterior interventricular branch
- nodal branch

Area of distribution

- Right atrium
- Ventricles right ventricle except anterior inter ventricular groove
 Small part of left ventricle at posterior interventricular groove
- Conducting system of heart

Left coronary artery

Origin - left posterior aortic sinus

Course -

- Runs forward
- Gives anterior interventricular branch
- Then runs into left anterior coronary sulcus
- Winds round left border of the heart And now known As circumflex artery
- Reach posterior inter ventricular groove.

Terminaton - Anstomose with right coronary artery

Branches-

- anterior inter ventricular branch
- Diagonal branch
- Left atrial branch

Area of distribution

- Left atrium
- Ventricles-
- Greatrt part of left ventricle except posterior interventricular groove
- Small part of right ventricle at anterior interventricular groove
- > Anterior part of interventricular septum

Clinical anatomy

Thrombosis of coronary artery

- ➤ Formation of thrombus in coronary artery leads to shortening of lumen of artery
- And blood supply to heart is decreased and results in myocardial infaction
- Sever pain over chest occurs

Incomplete obstruction leads to spasm of artery

- And reaults in angina pectoris
- That pain radiates towards medial side of the left arm forearm.

Coronary angiography

Is done to diagnose occlusion of coronary arteries

Angioplasty

- Is done to remove small obstruction in coronary arteries
- In this procedure small stent is used
- Or balloon is inflated at obstructed site

Bypass surgery

- Is done if blockage is at multiple sites
- ➤ In this procedure great saphenous vein or internal thorasic artery is used as graft

ARCH OF AORTA

Aorta is the great arterial trunk receives oxygenated blood from the left ventricle and distributes it to all parts of the body

It is studied in the following three parts

- Ascending aorta
- > Arch of aorta
- Descending aorta

Arch of aorta

- > Arch of aorta is the continuation of the ascending aorta
- > It is situated in the **superior mediastinum**

Course

- It begins at the level of sternal angle behind second right sternochondral joint
- It runs upward, backward and to the left side
- It arches over the left root of lung
- It ends at the lower border of the fourth thoracic vertebrae by <u>becoming</u> continuous as the descending aorta
- Thus it starts anteriorly and ends posteriorly at same level.

Relations

Superiority

Three branches of the aorta

- Brachiocephalic artery
- Left common carotid artery
- Left subclavian artery

Inferiority

- Bifurcation of pulmonary trunk
- Left Recurrent Laryngeal Nerve

Posteriorly

- Trachea
- Oesophagus
- Vertebral column

Anteriorly

- Left phrenic and left Vegas nerve
- Left pleura and left lung

Branches

- **1. Brachiocephalic artery** which decides into the <u>right common carotid artery and right subclavian artery</u>
- 2. Left common carotid artery

3. left subclavian artery

Clinical anatomy

<u>Aortic knuckle</u> - it is the shadow of aorta in the PA view of x-Ray of chest. <u>Coarctation of aorta</u> - Narrowing of aorta

• It occurs mainly just beyond the attachment of ductus arteriosus.

Aortic aneurism- It is the abnormal dilatation of aorta

• It compress surrounding structures

THORACIC DUCT

It is the largest lymphatic of the body

It is about 45 cm long. It had beaded appearance

Course

- It is a continuation of the cisterns Chyli
- It **starts at the level** of **twelfth thoracic vertebra** and <u>enters the thorax from</u> aortic opening of the diaphragm
- Ascends from posterior mediastinum
- Crossing from right to left side at the level of fifth thoracic vertebrae
- Further ascends
- Reaches neck up to level of 7 th cervical vertebrae
- Descends and finally
- Ends by opening into the angle between the left subclavian and left internal jugular veins

Relations

At the aortic opening of the diaphragm

Anteriorly - diaphragm

Posteriorly- vertebral column

To the right- azygous vein

To the left- aorta

Tributaries

• It receives the lymph from Both the half of body below diaphragm and left half above the diaphragm

At the ending part it receives lymph from

- Left jugular lymph trunk
- Left subclavian lymph trunk
- Left bronchi mediastinal lymph trunk

Abdomen

What is abdomen?

It is the lower part of trunk and lies below the diaphram

It is devided by a plane of the pelvic inlet

- larger upper part abdomen proper
- smaller lower part true or lesser pelvis

Abdomen and pelvis form the biggest cavity in the body

Boundaries of abdomen

Roof-

Undersurface of diaphram

Floor-

Pelvic diaphram mainly

Anterior wall-

• It is musculo-fibrous and formed by muscles and their apponeurosis

Posterior wall-

Osseo-musculofascial and rigid

ANTERIOR ABDOMINAL WALL

it is covering the abdominal cavity anteriorly

it is made up of six layers

- 1. skin
- 2. superficial fascia
- 3. muscles
- 4.continuous layer of fascia
- 5.extraperitoneal connective tissue
- 6. the peritoneum

it includes both the front as well as side walls of the abdomen so called antero-

lateral abdominal wall

Abdominal Skin

skin the outermost layer

• it is capable of undergoing enormous stretching

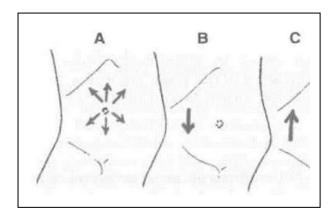
UMBILICUS

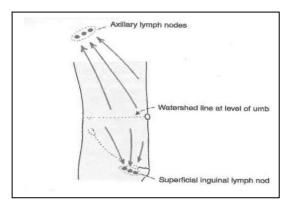
Normal scar formed by <u>remanants of the root of the umbilical cord</u>

- position- variable
- in healthy adult it lies in the <u>antriormedin plane at the level b/w 3 & 4 th lumbar</u> vertebrae

Water Shed Line

- venous blood and lymph which are above the plane goes upwards down the plane go downwards they do not cross normally. That line passing from umbilicus is water shed line
- But in some abnormalities its open up and **dilated veins** seen <u>radiating from the</u> umbilicus known as **caput medusae**
- Dilated veins normally do not break water shed line
- Embryological importance of umbilicus-Meeting point of three system digestive, excretory and vascular system





LINEA ALBA

- It is a **Tendinous Raphe**
- Extending from xiphoid process to the pubic symphysis
- Formed by crossing the apponeurosis of two sides muscle
- Apponeurosis of each muscle made up of two laminae
- **Superficial and deep laminae** this lamina interdigitate in a manner that <u>superficial lamina of one side continuouse with deep lamina of other side.</u>

RECTUS ABDOMINIS MUSCLE

Origin- Two tendinous head

- Lateral head from the *pubic crest* lateral part
- Medial head from anterior pubic ligament

Direction- fibres run vertically upwards

Insertion-

Lateral to xiphoid process on 7,6 and
 5 th costal cartilage

Nerve supply -

Lower six or seven thorasic nerves

Points to remember about RAM

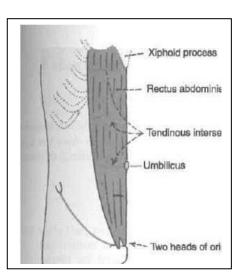
• Muscle is enclosed in a sheath which is known as rectus sheath

Tendinous insertion-

- There are three transeverse bands
- 1st opposite to umbilicus
- 2nd free end of xiphoid process
- 3rd between 1st and 2nd

Action of muscle of anterior abdominal wall

- Support of abdominal viscera-
- Expulsive act-
 - like micturation, defecation parturation, vomiting
- Forcefull expiratory act-
 - mainly external oblique which is useful for coughing, sneezing, shouting.
- Movement of the trunk-
 - Flexion of the trunk- mainly by RA
 - Lateral flexion- same side of IO and EO
 - Rotation of the trunksame side EO and opp IO

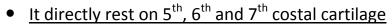


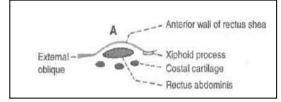
RECTUS SHEATH

- This the aponeurotic sheath covering the rectus abdominis
- Having two walls-
 - Anterior
 - It's a complete.covering muscle from end to end
 - Posterior
 - Its incomplete. Deficient above the costal margin and below the arcuate line

Above the costal margin

- Anterior external oblique aponeurosis
- Posterior- deficient

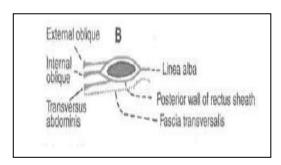




Between costal margin and arcuate line

Anteriorly-

- External oblique aponeurosis
- Anterior lamina of the aponeurosis of the internal oblique



Posterior wall

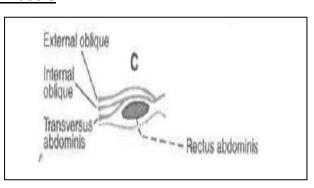
- Posterior lamina of the aponeurosis of the internal oblique
- Aponeurosis of the transverse muscle

Below the arcuate line

- Anterior wall
 - Aponeurosis of all the three muscles of abdomen



- Deficient
- Directly rest on fascia transversalis



Content of rectus sheath

Muscle- rectus abdominis main

• Pyramidalis lies infront of lower part of rectus abdominis

Arteries

- Superior epigestric artery
- Inferior epigestric artery

Veins

- Superior epigestric vena comitantes
- Inferior epigestric vena comitantes

Nerve

• Lower six thorasic nerves

Function of rectus sheath

- > It checks the bowing of the rectus Abdominis muscle during contraction
- > It maintains the strength of anterior abdominal wall

INGUINAL CANAL

Definition

• Inguinal canal is an **oblique passage** in the lower part of the anterior abdominal wall. It is situated just above the medial half of the inguinal ligament.

Length and direction:

- > It is about 4 cm (1.5 inches) long.
- It is directed downwards, forwards and medially.

Extention

It extends from the deep inguinal ring to the superficial inguinal ring.

The deep inguinal ring is an oval opening in the fascia transversalis.

<u>The superficial inguinal ring</u> is a **triangular gap** in the external oblique aponeurosis.

Boundaries

anterior wall

In its whole extent:

- Skin
- superficial fascia
- external oblique aponeurosis.

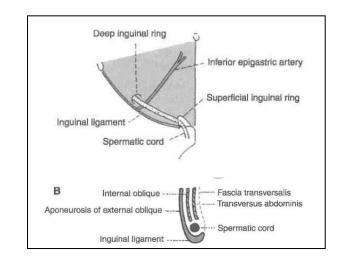
posterior wall

In its whole extent:

- fascia transversalis
- extraperitoneal tissue
- parietal peritoneum.

In its medial two-thirds

conjoint tendon



Roof - internal oblique and transversus abdominis muscles

Floor - inguinal ligament

Sex Difference

The inguinal canal is larger in males than in females.

STRUCTURES PASSING THROUGH THE INGUINAL CANAL

- Spermatic cord in males,
- > Round ligament of the uterus in females,

They Enters the inguinal canal through the deep inguinal ring and passes out through

the superficial inguinal ring.

> The ilioinguinal nerve

Contents of the Spermatic Cord

These are as follows.

(1) The ductus deferens

(2) Arteries

- The testicular arteries
- cremasteric arteries
- the artery of the ductus deferens.

(3) **veins**.

• The pampiniform plexus of veins.

(4) Lymph

• lymph vessels from the testis.

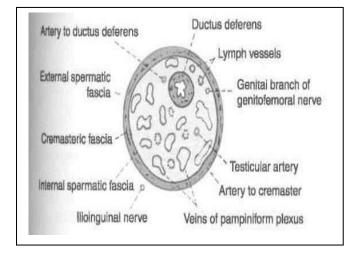
(5) Nerve

- Genital branch of the genitofemoral nerve
- Plexus of <u>sympathetic nerves</u> around the artery to the ductus deferens.
- (6) Remains of the processus vaginalis.

Coverings of Spermatic Cord

From inside to outwards, these are as follows.

- 1. Internal spermatic fascia
- 2. Cremasteric fascia
- 3. External spermatic fascia



CLINICAL ANATOMY OF INGUINAL CANAL

Hernia

Hernia is abnormal protrusion of any of body contents through any of its wall

Hernia Consists of sac, contents, and coverings

- Sac is the protrusion of the peritoneum. It has **neck** which is narrowed part and **Body** which is bigger part.
- Contents are mobile part they can be intestine or omentum or other viscera
- Covering are the layers of abdominal wall covering hernia sac.

INGUINAL HERNIA

Abnormal protrusion of abdominal contents (greater omentum and intestines) into the inguinal canal is known as inguinal hernia.

Cause

This is more likely to occur in persons in <u>whom intra-abdominal pressure is frequently increased</u>, e.g.

- chronic cough,
- by work involving frequent lifting of heavy weights

Types of Inguinal Hernia

DIRECT INGUINAL HERNIA

When the contents of the hernia <u>enter the inguinal canal through the posterior wall</u> the hernia is said to be **direct Inguinal Hernia**

A direct hernia passes through Hesselbach's triangle

The triangle is **divided into medial and lateral parts by the obliterated umbilical artery**.

- Direct hernia through the medial part known
 As direct medial hernia
- Direct hernia through lateral parts of the Triangle are referred as direct-lateral hernias

Hesselbach's triangle

which is bounded

medially by the lateral border of rectus abdominis,

laterally by the <u>inferior</u> epigastric artery, and

below by the <u>inguinal</u> <u>ligament</u>.

Anatomy

- Direct inguinal hernia occurs in old age, when the abdominal muscles become weak.
- It is frequently bilateral and incomplete

INDIRECT INGUINAL HERNIAS

When the **contents of the hernia** enter the inguinal canal by passing <u>through the deep inguinal ring</u> the hernia is said to be **indirect inguinal hernia**.

- Indirect inguinal hernias may be congenital.
- It may occur in the young through areas of congenital weakness produced by descent of the testis.

Processusvaginalis

During the descent of the testis, **a pouch of peritoneum** descends through the inguinal canal into the scrotum is the *processusvaginalis*.

Abnormal persistence of the processus is causative factor in the production of **inguinal hernias and hydrocele.**

Congenital hernia: The entire processus vaginalis remains patent and the contents of the hernia pass through it into the scrotum.

Complications of Hernia

Irreducibility- When **Hernia content** <u>do not go back</u> and produce <u>persistent swelling</u> considered as irreducible hernia

Obstruction- Loop Get narrowed so <u>content of the loop cannot move leading to</u> obstruction. **But blood supply is intact**.

Strangulation-

When arterial supply of hernia content also gets blocked the loop get <u>necrosed</u> called as strangulation.

EPIPLOIC FORAMEN/FORAMEN OF WINSLOW

This is a **vertical slit-like opening** through which **the lesser sac communicates with the greater sac.**

• The foramen is situated behind the **right free margin of the lesser omentum** at the level of the **12th thoracic vertebra**.

Boundaries

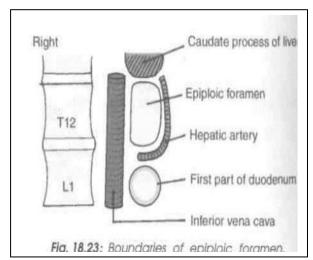
Anteriorly: Right free margin of the lesser Omentum containing the portal vein, the hepatic artery, and the bile duct

Posteriorly: The <u>inferior vena cava</u>, <u>the right suprarenal gland and T12 vertebra</u>.

Superiorly: Caudate process of the liver.

Inferiorly: First part of the duodenum and

the horizontal part of the hepatic artery

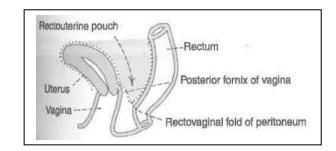


Clinical Anatomy-Internal hernia into the lesser sac can result through this foramen

RECTOUTERINE POUCH

BoundariesIt is bounded:

- Anteriorly, by the uterus and the posterior fornix of the vagina.
- Posteriorly, by the rectum
- Inferiorly (floor) by the rectovaginal fold of peritoneum.



CLINICAL ANATOMY

- > The floor of the pouch is 5.5 cm from the anus.
- It can be easily felt with a finger passed through the rectum or the vagina.
- ➤ It is the most dependent part of theperitoneal cavity, **pus tends to collect** here.
- ➤ The pouch can be drained either through the rectum or through the posterior fornix of the vagina.

THE STOMACH

Definition

 The stomach is a muscular bag forming the widest and most distensible part of the digestive tube.

Extent-

It is **connected above** to the **lower end of the oesophagus**, and**below** to the **duodenum**.

Location

- The stomach lies obliquely in the upper and left part of the abdomen
- It is occupying the epigastric, umbilical and left hypochondriac regions.
- Most of it lies under cover of the <u>left costal margin and the ribs</u>

Shape and Position

- When empty, the stomach is somewhat J-shaped (vertical);
- when**partially distended**, it becomes **pyriform** in shape.
- In obese persons, it is more horizontal.

The shape of the stomach can be studied in the living by <u>radiographic examination</u> <u>after giving a barium meal.</u>

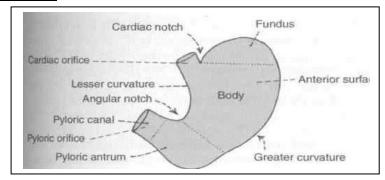
Size

- It is about **25 cm.** Long.
- the mean capacity is 30 ml at birth, 1 litre at puberty, and 1.5 to 2 litres or more in adults.

External Features

The stomach has

- 2 orifices or openings,
- 2 curvatures or borders,
- 2 surfaces



Two Orifices

The cardiac orifice

It is **joined** by the **lower end of the oesophagus**.

The pyloric orifice

It opens into the duodenum.

Two Curvatures

- The lesser curvature is concave and forms the right border of the stomach.
- It provides attachment to the lesser omentum.
- The greater curvature is convex and forms the left border of the stomach.
- It provides attachment to the greater omentum,

Two Surfaces

The anterior

The posterior

Two Parts Subdivided into Four

The stomach is divided into two parts.

- 1. Cardiac and
- 2. pyloric

-- |- |--

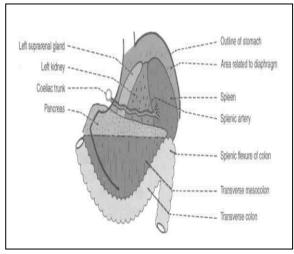
- Cardiac part is further subdivided into the fundus and body,
- Pyloric part is subdivided into the pyloric antrum and the pyloric canal.

STOMACH BED

- The posterior surface of the stomach is related to structures forming the stomach bed.
- <u>The structure forming stomach bed are</u> <u>separated from the stomach</u> by the **cavity of the lesser sac**.

These structures are:

- (1) The diaphragm;
- (2) the left kidney;
- (3) the left suprarenal gland;
- (4) the pancreas;
- (5) the transverse mesocolon;



- (6) the splenic flexure of the colon; and
- (7) the splenic artery

Sometimes the spleen is also included in the stomach bed.

BLOOD SUPPLY OF STOMACH

The stomach is supplied by:

- (1) Left gastric artery, a branch of coeliac trunk
- (2) Right gastric artery, a branch of common hepatic artery
- (3) **Right gastroepiploic artery**, a branch of **Gastroduodenal** artery
- (4) Left gastroepiploic artery, a branch of Splenic artery
- (5) **5 to 7 short gastric arteries**, which are **branches of splenic artery**

The veins of the stomach drain into the portal, superior mesenteric and splenic veins.

LYMPHATIC DRAINAGE OF THE STOMACH

The stomach can be **divided into four lymphatic territories**The drainage of these areas is as follows:

Area a, or pancreatico splenic area,

Upper part of left 1/3rd drains into the pancreaticosplenic nodes

➤ Lymph vessels from these nodes travel
Along splenic artery to reach coeliac nodes.

Area B right upper 2/3rd

- drains into the **left gastric nodes.**
- Lymph from these nodes drains into the coeliac nodes.

Area c lower part of left 1/3rd

- Drains into the **right gastroepiploic nodes**.
- Lymph vessels arising in these nodes drain into the subpyloric nodes
- From here the lymph is drained further into **the hepatic nodes**And **finally into the coeliac nodes**.

area d pyloric part

- drains into different directions into the pyloric, hepatic and left gastric nodes,
- Lymph passes from all these nodes to the coeliac nodes.

Note that lymph from all areas of the stomach ultimately reaches the coeliac nodes.

From here it passes through the intestinal lymph trunk to reach the cisterna chyli.

Nerve Supply

The stomach is supplied by sympathetic and parasympathetic nerves.

- The sympathetic *nerves* are derived from thoracic six to ten segments of the spinal cord
- The parasympathetic nerves are derived from the vagus

Clinical Anatomy Of stomach

Gastric pain

- Gastric pain is felt in the epigastrium.
- Because the stomach is supplied from segments T6 to T10 of the spinal cord.
- These segments also supply the upper part of the abdominal wall.

Peptic ulcer

- Peptic ulcer can occur in the sites which exposed to **pepsin and hydrochloric** acid.
- In the stomach peptic ulcer is named as Gastric ulcer

Gastric ulcer

• Gastric ulcer occurs typically along the lesser curvature.

Gastric Carcinoma

- Gastric carcinomais common and occurs along the greater curvature.
- The lymphatic drainage of stomach assumes importance.
- Metastasis can occur through the thoracic duct to the left supraclavicular lymph node.
- Its common in **blood group "A"**

Investigations

Chemical.

 Gastric analysis (fractional test meal) is done chiefly to estimate the gastric acidity.

Radiological examination

• by the barium meal.

Endoscopic

- It's called gastroscopy for stomach.
- The interior of stomach can be scanned under direct vision by endoscope.

THE DUODENUM

Definition and Location

- The duodenum is the widest and most fixed part of the small intestine.
- It extends from the pylorus to the duodenojejunal flexure.

length and Parts

Duodenum is 25 cm long.

It is divided into the following four parts.

- > First or superior part, 5 cm long.
- > Second or descending part, 7.5 cm long.
- > Third or horizontal part, 10 cm long.
- Fourth or ascending part, 2.5 cm long.

SECOND PART OF THE DUODENUM

Part of duodenum which begins at the superior duodenal flexure and end at the

inferior duodenal flexure.

Course

• This part is **about 7.5 cm long**.

Its relations are as follows.

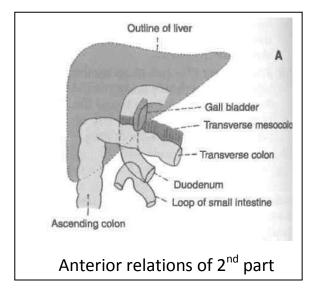
Peritoneal Relations

- It is retroperitoneal and fixed.
- Its anterior surface is covered with Peritoneum.

Visceral Relations

Anteriorly:

- Right lobe of the liver;
- Transverse colon,
- Root of the transverse mesocolon
- Small intestine

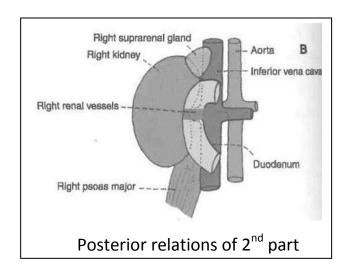


Posteriorly:

- Anterior surface of the right kidney near the medial border,
- Right renal vessels,
- Right edge of the inferior vena cava,
- Right psoas major.

Medially:

- Head of the pancreas
- the bile duct



Laterally:

• Right colic flexure

<u>The interior of the second part of the duodenum shows the following special</u> <u>features.</u>

The major duodenal papilla is an elevation

• The hepatopancreatic ampulla opens in it.

The minor duodenal papilla

presents the opening of the accessory pancreatic duct.

Arterial Supply

- **Upto the level of the hepatopancreatic ampulla opening**, the duodenum is supplied by the **superior pancreaticoduodenal artery**,
- Below opening duodenum supplied by the <u>inferior pancreaticoduodenal</u> <u>artery.</u>

Venous Drainage

• The veins of the duodenum drain into the **splenic**, **superior mesenteric and portal veins**.

Lymphatic Drainage

• lymph vessels from the duodenum end in the pancreaticoduodenal nodes

Nerve Supply

- Sympathetic nerves from thoracic ninth and tenth spinal segments
- parasympathetic nerves from the vagus,

Clinical anatomy

Duodenal diverticula

• They are seen along its concave border, generally at points where arteries enter the duodenal wall.

Congenital stenosis and obstruction of the second part of the duodenum

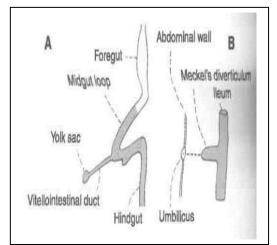
- may occur at the site of the opening of the bile duct.
- Other causes of obstruction is an annular pancreas.

X-ray

• The x-ray taken **after giving a barium meal**.

MECKEL'S DIVERTICULUM (DIVERTICULUM ILEI)

- Meckel's diverticulum occurs from the persistent proximal part of the vitellointestinal duct.
- **vitellointestinal duct** which normally disappears during the 6th week of intrauterine life.
- Some points of interest about it are as follows.
- 1. It occurs in 2% subjects.
- 2. Usually it is **2 inches** or 5 cm long.
- 3. It is situated about **2 feet** or 60 cm **proximal** to the ileocaecal valve.
- 4. Its calibre is equal to that of the ileum.
- 5. Its apex may be free or may be attached to the umbilicus, to the mesentery, or to any other abdominal structure by a fibrous hand.



CLINICAL ANATOMY

Meckel's diverticulum may cause intestinal obstruction.

VERMIFORM APPENDIX

Definition

This is a worm-like diverticulum arising from the the caecum

Dimensions

- The length varies from 2 to 20 cm with an average of 9 cm.
- It is longer in children than in adults.
- The **diameter** is about **5 mm**.

Positions

- The appendix lies in the **right iliac fossa**.
- Although the base of the appendix is fixed,
- The tip can point in any direction.
- The positions are **compared to clock**

Personic
11 O' clock

Prolleai
2 O' clock

Postleai
2 O' clock

Petvic
4 O' clock

Petvic
6 O' clock

- paracolic or 11 O'clock position.
- It may lie behind the caecum or colon, known
 As retrocaecal or 12 O'clock position. This is
 the commonest position of the appendix,
 about 65%.
- The appendix may points towards the spleen. This is the splenic or 2 O'clock position.

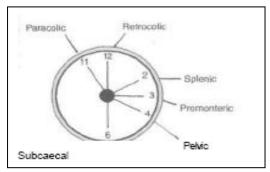
The appendix may lie in front of the ileum (preileal)

or behind the ileum (postileal).

- It may pointing to the sacral promontory called promontoric or 3 O'clock position.
- It may descend into the pelvis called pelvic or 4 O'clock position.

This is the second most common position about 30%.

➤ It may point towards the inguinal ligament called as midinguinal or 6 O'clock position.



Appendicular Orifice

The appendicular situated on the **posteromedial aspect** of the **caecum 2** cm below the ileocaecal orifice.

Lumen of Appendix

• It is quite small and may be partially or completely obliterated after mid-adult life.

Peritoneal Relations

• The appendix is suspended by peritoneum, called the **mesoappendix**.

<u>Blood Supply - The appendicular artery supplies appendix.</u>

Nerve Supply

- Sympathetic nerves are derived from thoracic nine and ten segments of spinal cord.
- Parasympathetic nerves are derived from the vagus.

Lymphatic Drainage

• lymphatics drains into the ileocolic nodes, appendicular nodes.

CLINICAL ANATOMY

Appendicitis

Inflammation of the appendix is known as appendicitis.

Appendicectomy.

The operation for removal of the appendix is called appendicectomy.

McBurney's point is the site of maximum tenderness in appendicitis.

• The point lies at the <u>junction of the lateral one-third and the medial</u> two-thirds of the line joining the umbilicus to the right anterior superior iliac spine.

PORTOSYSTEMIC COMMUNICATIONS (PORTOCAVAL ANASTOMOSIS

These communications form important routes of collateral circulation in portal obstruction.

The following are the important sites of portosystemic communications.

1.Umbilicus:

- The paraumbilical veins from <u>left branch of the portal vein</u>
 Anastomoses with veins of the anterior abdominal wall.
- In **portal obstruction** the veins around the umbilicus **enlarge** forming the *caput medusae*.

2.Lower end of oesophagus:

Oesophageal tributaries of the **left gastric vein** (portal)

anastomose with

Oesophageal tributaries of the accessory hemiazygos vein (systemic).

3.Anal canal:

The **superior rectal vein** (portal)

anastomoses with

the middle and inferior rectal veins (systemic)

4.Bare area of the liver

Hepatic venules (portal)

anastomose with

the phrenic and intercostal veins (systemic).

5.Posterior abdominal wall:

Veins of retro-peritoneal organs, like the duodenum, the ascending colon and the descending colon (portal)

anastomose with the

retroperitoneal veins of the abdominal wall and of the renal capsule (systemic).

6. Liver:

Rarely, the ductus venosus remains patent and connects the left branch of the portal vein directly to the inferior vena cava.

CLINICAL ANATOMY

Portal pressure:

Normal pressure in the portal vein is about 5-15 mm Hg.

Portal hypertension (pressure above 40 mm Hg):

It can be caused by the following:

• Cirrhosis of liver, in which the vascular bed of liver is markedly obliterated

It cause

- Congestive splenomegaly,
- Ascites, and
- Collateral circulation through the porto-systemic communications.
- It forms
 - o (i) Caput medusae around the umbilicus
 - (ii) oesophageal varices at the lower end of oesophagus which may rupture and cause dangerous or even fatal haematemesis; and
 - o (iii) haemorrhoids in the anal canal may be responsible for repeated bleeding per rectum.

ISCHIORECTAL FOSSA

The ischiorectal fossa is a wedge-shaped space situated one on each side of the anal canal below the pelvic diaphragm.

Dimentions

Length- 5cm , Width- 2.5 cm, Depth- 5 cm

Boundaries

Base is formed by the skin.

Apex *is* formed by the line where the **obturator fascia** meets the **inferior fascia of the pelvic diaphragm.**

Anteriorly - perineal membrane

Posteriorly - gluteus maximus

lateral wall - formed by:

- (a) obturator internus with the obturator fascia
- (b) medial surface of the ischial tuberosity

Medial wall is formed by:

- (a) External anal sphincter, with the fascia covering it in the lower part;
- (b) Levator ani with the anal fascia in the upper part

Contents of Ischiorectal Fossa

- 1. Ischiorectal pad of fat.
- 2. Inferior rectal nerve and vessels.
- 3. Posterior scrotal or posterior labial (in females) nerves and vessels
- 4. Perineal branch of the fourth sacral (S4) nerve.
- 5. Perforating cutaneous branches of nerves S2, S3.
- 6. Pudendal canal with its contents.

CLINICAL ANATOMY

1. The two ischiorectal fossae <u>allow distention of the rectum and anal canal during</u> passage of faeces.

2. Abscesses

Both the perianal and ischiorectal spaces are common sites of abscesses.

- Sometimes an abscess may burst into the anal canal or rectum <u>internally</u>, and on to the surface of the <u>perineum externally</u>.
- In this way an ischiorectal type of anorectal fistula or fistula in ano may be produced
- 3. The ischiorectal fat acts as a cushion-like support to the rectum and anal canal.
 - Loss of this fat in some diseases like diarrhoea in children may result in prolapse of the rectum.

SUPPORTS OF THE UTERUS

- The uterus is a mobile organ.
- It undergoes **extensive changes in size and shape** during the reproductive period of life.
- It is supported and prevented from going down by a number of factors which are chiefly muscular and fibromuscular.

Primary Supports

- A. Muscular or active supports
- 1. Pelvic diaphragm
- 2. Distal urethral sphincter mechanism
- 3. Perineal body
- B. Fibromuscular or mechanical supports
- 1. Pubocervical ligaments
- 2. Uterosacral ligaments
- 3. Transverse cervical ligaments of Mackenrodt
- 4. Uterine Axis
- 5. Round ligaments of uterus.

Secondary Supports

These are formed by peritoneal ligaments-

- 1. Rectovaginal fold of peritoneum
- 2. **U**terovesical fold of peritoneum
- 3. **B**road ligaments

Role of Individual Supports

Pelvic Diaphragm

- The **pelvic diaphragm** supports the pelvic viscera and resists any rise in the intra-abdominal pressure.
- The **pubococcygeus part** of the levator ani is partly inserted into the perineal body between the vagina and the rectum.

• Some of these fibres also **form a supporting sling and a sphincter for the vagina, and so indirectly for the uterus** and the urinary bladder.

Perineal Body

- It is a fibromuscular node to which ten muscles are attached.
- It acts as an anchor for the pelvic diaphragm, and thus maintains the integrity of the pelvic floor.

Distal urethral sphincter

- The sphincter urethrae muscle chiefly forms the external sphincter of the urethra.
- Many <u>inferior fibres of the muscle support the vagina by getting attached to</u> its walls

Uterine Axis

- The **anteverted position of the uterus** itself prevents the organ from sagging down through the vagina.
- Any rise in intra-abdominal pressure tends to push the uterus against the bladder and pubic symphysis.
- The **angle of anteversion** is maintained by the uterosacral and round ligaments

<u>Pubocervicol Ligaments</u>

- These ligaments connect the pubis to cervix and support the uterus. Transverse Cervical Ligaments of Mackenrodt
 - They connect the cervix to the pelvic wall that supports the uterus

Uterosacral Ligaments

- They connect the cervix to the sacrum(S2, S3)
- The uterosacral ligaments keep the cervix pulled backwards against the forward pull of the round ligaments.
- <u>Uterosacral and round ligaments form a couple that maintains the uterine axis</u>

Round Ligaments of Uterus

- The round ligaments are **two fibromuscular flat bands**, 10 to 12 cm long.
- The round ligament **keeps the fundus pulled forwards** and <u>maintains the angle of anteversion against the backward pull of the uterosacral ligaments</u>

CLINICAL ANATOMY

1. Retroverted uterus

In some cases the uterus comes to lie in straight line with the vagina.
 This is called a retroverted uterus

2. Prolapse of the uterus

- Sometimes the uterus passes downwards into the vagina.
- The condition is called *prolapse of the uterus*.
- It is caused by weakening of the various supports of the uterus.

ANAL CANAL

The anal canal is the **terminal part of the large intestine.**

Situation

- Anal canal is situated below the level of the pelvic diaphragm.
- It lies between the right and left ischiorectal fossae

Length, Extent and Direction

- The anal canal is **3.8 cm long**.
- It extends from the anorectal junction to the anus.
- It is directed downwards and backwards.
- The anal canal is surrounded by inner involuntary and outer voluntary sphincters which keep the lumen closed

Relations of the Anal Canal

Anteriorly

- In both sexes : perineal body,
- In males: membranous urethra and bulb of penis,
- In females : lower end of the vagina

Posteriorly

- Anococcygeal ligament; and
- Tip of the coccyx

Laterally

Ischiorectal fossae

All round

• Anal canal is **surrounded by the sphincter muscles**, the tone of which keeps the canal closed.

Interior of the Anal Canal

It can be divided into three parts:

- Upper part, about 15 mm long;
- Middle part, about 15 mm long;
- Lower part about 8 mm long.

Upper Mucous Part

- This part is about 15 mm long. It is lined by mucous membrane The mucous membrane shows
 - 6 to 10 vertical folds; these folds are called the **anal columns of Morgagni.**
 - The lower ends of the anal columns are united to each other by short transverse folds of mucous membrane; these folds are called the **anal valves**
 - Above each valve there is a depression in the mucosa which is called the **anal** sinus.
 - The anal valves together form a transverse line that runs all round the anal canal. This is **the pectinate line**.

Middle Part or Transitional Zone or Pecten

- The next 15 mm or so of the anal canal is also lined by mucous membrane.
- The mucosa has a **bluish appearance** because of a **dense venous plexus** that lies betweem it and the muscle coat.
- This region is referred to as the *pecten* or *transitional zone*.
- The **lower limit of the pecten** often has a whitish appearance because of which it is referred to as the **white line of Hilton.**

Lower Cutaneous Part

- It is about 8 mm long and is lined by true skin containing sweat and sebaceous glands.
- The epithelium of the lower part resembles that of true skin.

Musculature of the Anal Canal Anal Sphincters

The internal anal sphincter

- It is involuntary in nature.
- It is smooth muscle.
- It surrounds the upper three-fourths, i.e. 30 mm of the anal canal.

The external anal sphincter

- It is under voluntary control.
- It is made up of a striated muscle.
- It surrounds the whole length of the anal canal.

Arterial Supply

 The part of the anal canal above the pectinate line is supplied by the superior rectal artery. • The part below the pectinate line is supplied by the **inferior rectal artery**.

Venous Drainage

1. The internal rectal venous plexus

- It lies in the submucosa of the anal canal
- Veins present in the three anal columns situated at **3**, **7** and **11** O'clock positions as seen in the lithotomy position.
- They are large and constitute potential sites for the formation of primary internal piles.

2. The external rectal venous plexus

- It lies **outside the muscular coat** of the rectum and anal canal.
- It **communicates** freely with the internal plexus.

Nerve Supply

- Above the pectinate line
 - anal canal is supplied by autonomic nerves, both sympathetic and parasympathetic
- Below the pectinate line
 - o It is supplied by somatic [inferior rectal]nerves.

Sphincters

- The internal sphincter is contracted by sympathetic nerves and relaxed by parasympathetic nerves.
- The external sphincter is supplied by the inferior rectal nerve.

CLINICAL ANATOMY

Anal Fissure/Fissure in Ano

- Anal fissure is caused by the rupture of one of the anal valves,
- <u>usually by the passage of dry hard stool in a constipated person</u>
- Because of the involvement of skin the condition is extremely painful.

Fistula in Ano

A fistula is an **abnormal epithelialised track** connecting two cavities, or one cavity with the exterior.

PILES OR HEMORRHOIDS

Internal piles or true piles

- Internal piles are dilatations of the internal rectal venous plexus.
- They occur above the pectinate line.
- They are painless.
- They bleed more during straining at stool.
- The **primary piles occur in 3, 7 and 11 O'clock** positions of the anal wall when viewed in the lithotomy position.
- They are formed by enlargement of the radicles of the superior rectal vein which lie in the anal columns
- Varicosities in other positions of the lumen are called secondary piles.

The various *factors* responsible for causing internal piles are:

- Poor support to veins from the surrounding loose connective tissue,
- absence of valves in the superior rectal and portal veins;
- **Direct transmission of the increased portal pressure** at the portosystemic communications.
- For these reasons the development of piles is favoured by **constipation**, prolonged standing, excessive straining at stool, and portal hypertension.

External piles or false piles

- It occur **below the pectinate line** and are,
- therefore, very painful.
- They do not bleed on straining at stool.

RELATIONS OF THE KIDNEYS

- The kidneys are retroperitoneal organs.
- partly covered by peritoneum anteriorly.

Relations Common to the Two Kidneys

- The upper pole of each kidney is related to the corresponding suprarenal gland.
- The lower poles lie about 2.5 cm above the iliac crests.

The medial border of each kidney is related to

- (1) the suprarenal gland, above the hilus
- (2) the ureter below the hilus.

The posterior surfaces of both kidneys are related to

- (1) The diaphragm;
- (2) the medial and lateral arcuate ligaments;
- (3) the psoas major;
- (4) the quadratus lumborum;
- (5) the transversus abdominis;
- (6) the subcostal vessels

In addition, the right kidney is related to twelfth rib, and the left kidney to eleventh and twelfth rib.

The structures related to the hilum

The following structures are seen in the hilum from **anterior to posterior side:** (1) The renal vein

- (2) the renal artery, and
- (3) the renal pelvis, which is the expanded upper end of the ureter.

Other Relations of the Right Kidney

Anterior Relations

- (1) Right suprarenal gland,
- (2) liver,
- (3) second part of duodenum,
- (4) hepatic flexure of colon, and
- (5) small intestine.
 - The lateral border of the right kidney is related to the right lobe of the liver and to the hepatic flexure of the colon

Other Relations of the Left Kidney

Anterior Relations

- (1) Left suprarenal gland,
- (2) spleen,
- (3) stomach,
- (4) pancreas,
- (5) splenic vessels,
- (6) splenic flexure and descending colon, and
- (7) jejunum.
 - The lateral border of the left kidney is related to the spleen and to the descending colon.

WRITE A SHORT NOTE ON FEMORAL TRIANGLE.

It's a triangular shape. It's situated in upper 1/3 rd of thigh.

Boundaries-

Laterally- By medial border of Sartorius

Medially- By medial border of adductor longus

Base- is formed by inguinal ligament

Apex- is formed by the point where medial and lateral boundaries meet

Apex is continuous below with th adducutor canal.

Roof-

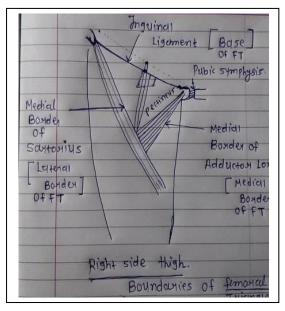
- > skin
- ➤ **Superficial fascia** -containing superficial inguinal lymphodes, branches of femoral artery with veins, and upper part of great saphenous vein.
- ➤ **Deep fascia** with saphenous opening and cribriform fascia

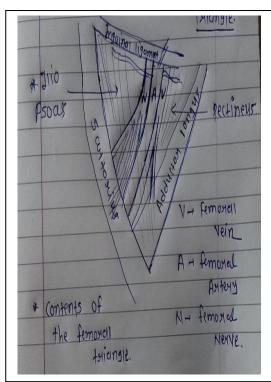
Floor- a-p-p-i

Medial to lateral by adductor longus---pectineus---psoas major---iliacus.

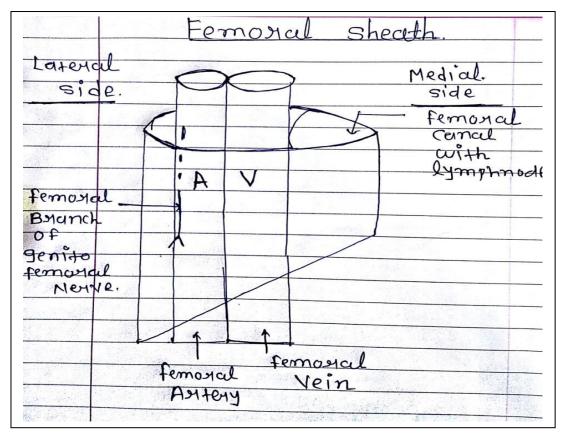
Contents-

- 1. Femoral artery and its branches
- 2. Femoral vein and its tributaries
- **3. Femoral sheath** covering upper 4 cm of femoral vessels
- 4. Nerves
 - a] femoral nerve- lateral to femoral artery
 - b] nerve to pectineus
 - c]femoral branch of genitofemoral nerve
 - d] lateral cutaneous nerve of thigh
- 5. Deep inguinal lymph nodes.





WRITE A SHORT NOTE ON FEMORAL SHEATH.



Shape of sheath is funnel type

It is prolongation of fascia around proximal part of femoral vessels. Enclosing Upper 3 to 4 cm of femoral vessels.

Site- situated in the femoral triangle below inguinal ligament

Formed by downward extension of two layers of facia of abdomen.

Anterior wall by – fascia transversalis

Posterior wall by – fascia iliaca.

Inferiorly- sheath merge with connective tissue around vessels.

Lateral wall is vertical

Medial wall is oblique and directed downward and laterally

The sheath is divided into the three compartments by septa

Lateral compartment- it contains **femoral artery** and **femoral branch of genitofemoral nerve**

Intermediate compartment- it contains femoral vein

Medial compartment- it is the smallest of all.

It is known as **femoral canal**.

FEMORAL CANAL

[Draw the diagram of above short note]

This is the medial compartment of femoral sheath

Shape – conical

Dimensions- it is wide at base and narrow below. About 1.5 cm long and 1.5 cm wide at base.

Base- also known as femoral ring

It is the upper end of femoral canal. It is wider.

This is a weak point in lower abdomen and it is the site for femoral hernia.

content- femoral canal contains lymph node of cloquet, lymphatics and small amount of areolar tissue.

Thus femoral canal is the space in the femoral sheath and femoral ring is the upper end of the femoral canal

SQ-Femoral Ring

The base or upper end of femoral canal is called femoral ring

Boundaries-

Anteriorly- by inguinal ligament

Posteriorly – by pectineus and its covering fascia

Medially by the concave margin of lacunar ligament

Laterally by the septum separating it from femoral vein

<u>Femoral septum</u>-the femoral ring is closed by a condensation of extraperitoneal connective tissue called as femoral septum

<u>Femoral fossa</u> parietal peritoneum covering femoral septum from above shows a depression called as femoral fossa.

FEMORAL HERNIA

Hernia- is abnormal swelling due to the normal content of body which protrude out with their coverings

Femoral canal is an area of potential weakness in the lower abdominal wall so abdominal content pass from it and they reach there and produce swelling.

Mostly the content is bowel loop.

Course-First it passes downwards through femoral canal → forwards through saphenous opening → finally upwards along with superficial epigestric and superficial circumflex iliac vessels.

For reduction of hernia

The reverse course has to be followed.

SQ-Femoral hernia is more common in Females than males.

- Because femoral canal is wider in females.
- Femoral canal is wider in females because females have wider pelvis than males. And smaller size of femoral vessels
- femoral ring is the entry site for femoral hernia

Complication of hernia

Obstructed hernia-

When the content of hernia sac can't go back to their original position known as obstructed hernia

Strangulated hernia-

when blood supply of content of hernia is also impaired, it's known as strangulated hernia

- For hernia repair surgery is done
- In surgical process contents are pushed back following the reverse root.

ADDUCTOR CANAL HUNTER'S CANAL SUBSARTORIAL CANAL

Adductor canal is an **intramuscular space** situated on the medial side and middle one third of thigh.

Extent- Above from apex of the femoral triangle to Below tendinous opening in the adductor magnus muscle.

Shape- the canal is triangular on cross-section.

Boundries

Anterior wall – is formed by vastus medialis

Posterior wall [floor]- is formed by above- adductor longus and below by- adductor magnus

Medial wall [roof] – is formed by strong fibrous membrane joining the anterior and posterior walls.

It is overlapped by Sartorius

Sabsartorial plexus of nerves lies on the fibrous roof of the canal and under Sartorius This plexus is formed by- branches from [1] medial cutaneous nerve of thigh [2] saphenous nerve [3] anterior division of obturator nerve

Content

artery

- Femoral artery which gives muscular branches and descending genicular artry
- Femoral artry leaves canal through hitus magnus and continue as poplitial artry

Vein

- Femoral vein
- Femoral vein is a continuation of poplitial vein

Nerve

- Saphenous Nerve
 Saphenous nerve is the longest cutaneous nerve.It's a branch of femoral N
- Nerve to Vastus medialis and obturator nerve's branches

Clinical anatomy

 operation for the treatment of poplitial aneurism is done by <u>ligating</u> the femoral artery in the adductor canal

OBTURATOR NERVE

It's the main nerve of Medial Compartment of Thigh.

Origin and Root value-

Ventral devisions of the ventral primary rami of spinal nerve L2, L3, L4

Course and division

- It emerges at the medial border of psoas major muscle then decends down lying on the lateral wall of true pelvis
- Enters thigh by passing from obturator foramen
- Within the obturator canal nerve devides into anterior and posterior devision

Supply

Anterior Division supplies

- Pectineus
- Adductor longus
- Gracilis
- Adductor brevis if not supplied by the posterior division
- Gives branch to subsartorial plexus
- Hip joint
- Ends by supplying the femoral artery

Posterior Division supplies

- Obturator externus
- Adductor magnus
- Adductor brevis if not supplied by the anterior division
- **Genicular branch** which enters the poplitial fossa then **supplies** <u>capsule and</u> cruciate ligaments of knee joint
- Some fibers supply poplitial artery

Clinical anatomy

<u>Referred pain</u> – a disease in the hip joint may cause referred pain in the knee and on the medial side of the thigh.

Because of common nerve supply by the obturator nerve

Spastic paraplegia may involve adductor muscles and it creates **spasm** of the adductor muscles.

POPLITIAL FOSSA

Poplitial fossa is a diamond shaped depression lying behind the knee joint.

In relation to lower part of femur and upper part of tibia.

Boundries

Superolaterally- Biceps femoris

Superomedially- Semitendinousus,

semimembranosus mainly

Gracilis, Sartorius and adductor magnus also

Inferolaterally- Lateral head of gastrocnemius

mainly and plantaris

Inferomedially – Medial Head of gastrocnemius

Roof -

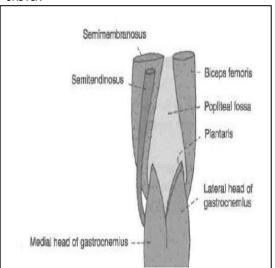
- deep fascia or popliteal fascia
- Superficial fascia which contains small saphenous Vein
- cutaneous nerves

Floor-

- Poplitela surface of the femur,
- Capsule of the knee joint,
- Oblique popliteal ligament,
- Strong popliteal fascia covering popliteus muscle

Contents of the fossa

- Popliteal artery and its branches
- Popliteal vein and its tributaries
- The tibial nerve and its branches
- Common peroneal nerve and its branches
- Posterior cutaneous nerve of the thigh
- Genicular branch of the obturator nerve
- Popliteal lymph nodes
- Fat



CLINICAL ANATOMY

- 1. Blood pressure in the lower limb is recorded from the popliteal artery.
- 2. Constant palpation of the popliteal artery may cause changes in the vessel wall, leading to narrowing and occulsion of the artery.
- 3. **The Popliteal artery** is more prone to **aneurysm** than many other arteries of the body.

DORSALIS PEDIS ARTERY

Introduction and Origin

- This is the chief artery of the dorsum of the foot.
- It is a **continuation of the anterior tibial artery** on to the dorsum of the foot.

Course

- The artery begins in front of the ankle between the two malleoli.
- It passes forwards along the medial side of the dorsum of the foot to **reach the proximal end of the first intermetatarsal space**
- Here it dips downwards, ends in the sole by completing plantar arterial arch.

Relations

Superficial:

Skin, fasciae, and extensior retinaculum.

Deep:

- Capsular ligament of the ankle joint.
- The talus, navicular and intermediate cuneiform bones.

Medial:

Extensor hallucis longus.

Lateral

• First tendon of the extensor digitorum longus.

Branches

- 1. The lateral tarsal artery
- 2. The medial tarsal branches
- 3. The arcuate artery
 - It gives off the second, third and fourth dorsal metatarsal arteries
- 4. The first dorsal metatarsal artery
 - It gives a branch to the medial side of the big toe.

CLINICAL ANATOMY

Pulsations of the dorsalis pedis artery are easily felt **between** the tendons of the **extensor hallucis longus** and the **first tendon of the extensor digitorum longus**.

- dorsalis pedis artery is congenitally absent in about 14% of subjects.
- It is commonly palpated in patients with vaso-occlusive diseases of the lower limb.

WHAT IS GUY ROPES

- The three muscles inserted into the upper part of the medial surface of tibia
- represent one muscle from each of the three compartments of thigh
- Sartorius belongs to anterior compartment of thigh,
- gracilis belongs to medial compartment of thigh,
- Semitendinosus belongs to posterior compartment of thigh
- These three muscles are reaching below at one point, and spread out above towards pelvis, like three strings of a tent.

From this arrangement it appears that they act as "guy ropes", to stabilize the bony pelvis on the femur

Anserine bursa.

- This is a large **bursa**, with several diverticula.
- It separates the tendons of sartorius, gracilis and semitendinosus all their insertion from one another, from the bony surface of tibia, and from the tibial collateral ligament

COMMON PERONEAL NERVE

This is the smaller terminal branch of the sciatic nerve

Root Value: (L4, L5, S1, S2)

Course

- It **extends** from the **superior angle of the poplitial fossa** to the lateral angle, along the medial border of the biceps femoris.
- Continuing downwards and forwards.
- it winds around the **posterolateral aspect of the neck of the fibula**, **pierces the peroneus longus**, and divides into the superficial and deep peroneal nerves.

Branches

Cutaneous branches are two:

- Lateral cutaneous nerve of the calf
- Peroneal communicating nerve

Articular Branches

- Superior lateral genicular nerve.
- Inferior lateral genicular nerve
- Recurrent genicular nerve
- common peroneal nerve divides into superficial and deep peroneal nerves.
 - o superficial peroneal supplies evertors of the foot and
 - o deep peroneal supplies dorsiflexors

Muscular branches do not arise from this nerve.

However, it may give branch to the **short head of biceps femoris.**

Clinical Anatomy

- The common peroneal nerve can be palpated against the posterolateral side of the neck of the fibula.
- It may be injured in this area.
- It can get injured easily by a **stick blow** on the **posterolateral aspect of neck of the fibula.**
- **Dorsiflexion and evertion** are lost. This condition is called "**Foot drop**".
- It is the most frequently injured nerve in the lower limb.

PLANTAR ARCH

<u>Plantar arch is formed by the direct continuation of the lateral plantar artery, and is completed medially by the dorsalis pedis artery.</u>

The arch is slightly curved with its convexity directed forwards.

Course

- It extends from the base of the fifth metatarsal bone to the proximal part of the first inter metatarsal space,
- It lies between third and fourth layers of the sole.

Branches of the Plantar Arch

- 1. Four *plantar metatarsal* arteries run distal one in each intermetatarsal space.
- Each artery enter by dividing into two *plantar digital* branches for adjacent sides of two digits.
- The first artery also gives off a branch to the medial side of the great toe.
- The lateral side of the little toe gets a direct branch from the lateral plantar artery.
- 2. The plantar arch gives off three proximal *perforating arteries* that pass through the <u>second</u>, third and fourth intermetatarsal spaces and communicates with the dorsal metatarsal arteries which are the branches of the arcuate artery.
- **3.** The distal end of each plantar metatarsal artery gives off a *distal perforating artery* which joins the **distal part of the corresponding dorsal metatarsal artery**.

GREAT /LONG SAPHENOUS VEIN

This is the largest and longest superficial vein of the lower limb

Formation, course and Termination

- It begins on the **dorsum of the foot** from the **medial end of the dorsal venous** arch,
- Runs upwards in front of the medial malleolus, along the medial side of the leg,
- and behind the knee.
- In the thigh, it goes upward, forwards to reach the saphenous opening
- where it pierces the cribriform fascia
- and opens into the femoral vein.
- Before piercing the cribriform fascia, it receives three named tributaries corresponding to the three cutaneous arteries, and also many unnamed tributaries

Characteristic

- It contains about 10 to 15 valves which prevent back flow of the venous blood, which tends to occur due to gravity.
- Incompetence of these valves makes the vein dilated and tortuous leading to varicose veins.

Connection

- The vein is also connected to the deep veins of the limb by perforating veins.
- The **perforating veins** are also provided with valves which permit flow of blood only from the superficial to the deep veins.
- failure of these valves also gives rise to varicose veins

Clinical Anatomy

Varicose veins and ulcers.

 If the valves in the perforating veins or at the termination of the superficial veins become incompetent, the defective veins become "high pressure leaks"

- Through which the high pressure of the deep veins produced by muscular contraction and it is transmitted to the superficial veins.
- This results in dilatation of the superficial veins Known as varicose Vein
- Gradual degeneration of their walls producing varicose ulcers.

"Calf pump" and "Peripheral heart".

- In the **upright position** of the body, the **venous return** from the lower limb **depends largely on the contraction of calf muscles**.
- These muscles are, therefore, known as the "calf pump".
- For the same reason the **soleus** is sometimes called the **peripheral heart.**
- Sinuses are present in soleus
- When the muscle relaxes, blood flows into the sinuses from *the* superficial veins.
- When this muscle contracts, blood from sinuses pumped into the deep veins.
- Unidirectional blood flow is maintained by the valves in the perforating veins.

Trendelenburg test.

- This is done to find out the **site of leak or defect** in a patient **with varicose veins**.
- Only the superficial veins and the perforating veins can be tested, not the deep veins.

Procedure

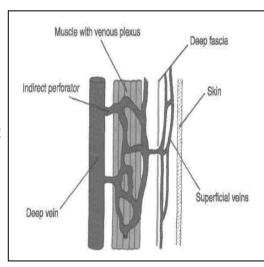
- The patient is **made to lie down**, and the **veins are emptied by raising the limb** and stroking the varicose veins in a proximal direction.
- Now pressure is applied with the **thumb** at the **saphenofemoral junction**, and the patient is asked to **stand up quickly**.

To test the superficial veins, the pressure is released.

 Quick filling of the varicose veins from above indicates incompetency of the superficial veins.

To test the perforating veins,

- The pressure at the saphenofemoral junction is not released, but maintained for about a minute.
- Gradual filling of the varices indicates incompetency of the perforating veins, allowing blood to pass from deep to superficial veins.



HIP JOINT

Ball and socket variety of synovial joint

- The head of the femur articulates with the acetabulum of the hip bone to form the hip joint.
- The hip joint is **unique** in having a **high degree of stability** as well as mobility.

Ligaments

- Fibrous capsule,
- Iliofemoral ligament
- Pubofemoral ligament,
- Ischiofemoral ligament,
- Ligament of the head of the femur,
- · Acetabular labrum, and
- Transverse acetabular ligament.

Relations

Anterior relations

Tendon of the iliopsoas

Posterior Relations

- obturator internus and gemelli,
- piriformis,
- gluteus maximus muscle.

Superior Relations

 Reflected head of the rectus femoris covered by the gluteus minimus, gluteus medius

Inferior Relations

- Lateral fibres of the **pectineus** and
- obturator externus.
- In addition there are gracilis, adductors longus, brevis, magnus and hamstring muscles.

Blood Supply

The hip joint is supplied by the **obturator artery**, **two circumflex femoral and two gluteal arteries**.

Table 12.1: Muscles producing movements at the hip joint			
Movement		Chief muscles	Accessory muscles
1.	Flexion	Psoas major and iliacus	Pectineus, rectus femoris, and sartorius; adductors (mainly adductor longus) partici; in early stages.
2.	Extension	Gluteus maximus and hamstrings	_
3.	Adduction	Adductors longus, brevis and magnus	Pectineus and gracilis
4.	Abduction	Glutei medius and minimus	Tensor fasciae latae and sartorius
5.	Medial rotation	Tensor fasciae latae and the anterior fibres of the glutei medius and minimus	
6.	Lateral rotation	Two obturators, two gemelli and the quadratus femoris	Piriformis, gluteus maximus and sartorius

CLINICAL ANATOMY

The region of the hip joint is commonly affected by disease or injury.

Congenital dislocation

- Congenital dislocation is more common in the hip
- The head of the femur slips upwards on to the gluteal surface
- This causes lurching gait, and Trendelenburg's test is positive.

Coxa vera

 Coxa vera is a condition in which the neck-shaft angle is reduced from the normal angle

Osteoarthritis

- Osteoarthritis is a disease of old age, characterized by growth of osteophytes at the articular ends,
- which make movements limited and painful.

Injuries:

Dislocation of the hip

- **Dislocation of the hip** *may* be **posterior**, anterior or central.
- The sciatic nerve may be injured in posterior dislocations.

Fracture of the neck of the femur

- *Fracture of the neck of the femur* may be subcapital, near the head, cervical in the middle, or basal near the trochanters.
- These fractures are common in old age, between the age of 40 and 60 years.
- Femur-neck-fracture is usually **produced by trivial injuries**.

Referred pain

<u>Disease of the hip may cause referred pain in the knee because of the common nerve supply of the two joints.</u>

LOCKING AND UNLOCKING OF THE KNEE JOINT

Locking

Locking is a mechanism that allows the knee to remain in the **position of full extension** as in **standing without much muscular effort**.

- Locking occurs as a result of **medial rotation of the femur** during **the last stage of extension.**
- The anteroposterior diameter of the lateral femoral condyle is less than that of the medial condyle.
- As a result, when the lateral condylar articular surface is fully 'used up' by extension, part of the medial condylar surface remains unused.
- At this stage the **lateral condyle serves as an axis** around which the **medial condyle rotates backwards**, i.e.
- medial rotation of the femur occurs, so that the remaining part of the medial condylar surface is also 'taken up'.
- This movement locks the knee joint.
- Locking is aided by the oblique pull of ligaments during the last stages of extension.
- When the knee is locked, it is completely 'rigid and all ligaments of the joint are taut.
- Locking is produced by continued action of the same muscles that produce extension, i.e. **the quadriceps femoris mainly vastus medialis**
- The locked knee joint can be flexed only after it is unlocked by a reversal of the medial rotation, i.e. by lateral rotation of the femur.

Unlocking

Its lateral rotation of femur on fixed tibia at the starting of flexion of knee joint.

It is done by popliteus muscle.

INVERSION AND EVERSION OF THE FOOT

Inversion

Inversion is a movement in which the medial border of the foot is elevated, so that the sole faces medially.

Inversion is accompanied by plantar flexion of the foot and adduction of the forefoot

Muscles producing movements of inversion

- Main muscles- tibialis anterior, tibialis posterior
- Accessory muscles- flexor hellucis longus, flexor digitorum longus

Eversion

Eversion is a movement in which the lateral border of the foot is elevated, so that the sole faces laterally.

Eversion is accompanied by dorsiflexion of the foot and abduction of the forefoot

Muscles producing movements of Eversion

- Main muscle- peroneus longus, peroneus brevis
- Accessory muscles- peroneus tertius

These movements can be performed voluntarily only when the foot is off the ground.

• When the foot is on the ground these movements help to adjust the foot to uneven ground.

Joints Taking Part

Main:

- 1. Subtalar
- 2. Talocalcaneonavicular

Accessory:

• Transverse tarsal which includes calcaneocuboid and talonavicular joints.

Axis of Movements

Inversion and eversion take place around an oblique axis.

Range of Movements

1. <u>Inversion is much more free than eversion</u>.

Family
Planning

Contraception

CONTRACEPTION

Contraception means "to prevent pregnancy"

- > It is also called birth control, family planning.
- > Fertility control techniques may be temporary or permanent.

Several methods are available for fertility control described below...

RHYTHM METHOD (SAFE PERIOD)

It is based on the time of ovulation.

- After ovulation, i.e. on the 14th day of menstrual cycle, the ovum is fertilized. Its viability is only for 2 days after ovulation
- > Sperms survive only for about 24 to 48 hours after ejaculation.
- ➤ **If sexual intercourse occurs during this period** there is chance of pregnancy. This period is called the **dangerous period**.
- Pregnancy can be avoided if there is no sexual intercourse during this period.
- The prevention of pregnancy by avoiding sexual mating during this period is called rhythm method or safe period.

MECHANICAL BARRIERS – PREVENTION OF ENTRY OF SPERM INTO UTERUS

Mechanical barriers are used **to prevent the entry of sperm** into uterine cavity. These barriers are called **condoms**.

Male condom

- ➤ It is a leak proof sheath, made of latex.
- ➤ It **covers the penis** and <u>does not allow entrance of semen into the female</u> genital tract during coitus.

Female condom

- In females, the commonly used condom is cervical cap or diaphragm.
- It covers the cervix and prevents entry of sperm into uterus.

CHEMICAL METHODS

Chemical substances, which destroy the sperms, are applied in female genital tract before coitus.

- Destruction of sperms is called spermicidal action.
- ➤ The spermicidal substances are available in the form of <u>foam,tablet, jelly</u>, cream and paste.

ORAL CONTRACEPTIVES (PILL METHOD)

Oral contraceptives are the drugs taken by mouth (pills) to prevent pregnancy. These pills prevent pregnancy by

- > inhibiting maturation of follicles and ovulation
- ➤ Progesterone increases the thickness of mucosa in cervix, which is not favorable for transport of sperm.

These pills contain synthetic estrogen and progesterone.

Contraceptive pills are of three types:

1. COMBINED PILLS

- Combined pills contain synthetic estrogen like ethinyl estradiol and synthetic progesterone like norgestrol.
- > Pills are taken daily from 5th to 25th day of menstrual cycle.
- > The withdrawal of the pills after 25th day causes menstrual bleeding.
- > The intake of pills is started again after 5th day of the next cycle.

2. SEQUENTIAL PILLS

Sequential pills contain estrogen along with progesterone.

- These pills also prevent ovulation.
- Sequential pills are taken in two courses

3. MINIPILLS OR MICROPILLS

Minipills contain a low dose of only progesterone

> Taken throughout the menstrual cycle.

DISADVANTAGES AND ADVERSE EFFECTS OF ORAL CONTRACEPTIVES

Following are the disadvantages and adverse

- May not be suitable for women having disorders such as diabetes, cardiovascular diseases or liver diseases
- > Hypertension and heart attack

QUE. INTRAUTERINE CONTRACEPTIVE DEVICE (IUCD)

Fertilization and the implantation of ovum are prevented by **inserting some object** made from metal or plastic into uterine cavity.

Such object is called intrauterine contraceptive device (IUCD).

" MECHANISM OF ACTION OF IUCD

- Prevents fertilization and implantation of the ovum.
- > The **IUCD** with copper content has spermicidal action also.

- ➤ The **IUCD which is loaded with synthetic progesterone** slowly releases progesterone.
- Progesterone causes thickening of cervical mucus and prevents entry of sperm into uterus.

It is inserted into the uterine cavityby using some special applicator.

,

DISADVANTAGES OF IUCD

- Cause heavy bleeding in some women
- Promote infection
- Come out of uterus accidentally.

SURGICAL METHOD (STERILIZATION)

PERMANENT METHOD

➤ **Permanent sterility** is obtained by **surgical methods**. It is also called sterilization.

TUBECTOMY

In tubectomy, the fallopian tubes are cut and both the cut ends are ligated [closed]

- > It prevents entry of ovum into uterus.
- > The operation is **done through vaginal orifice** in the **postpartum period**.
- During other periods, it is done by abdominal incision.
- Tubectomy is done quickly (in few minutes) by using a laparoscope.
- Though tubectomy causes permanent sterility
- ➤ Its reversible- If necessary recanalization of fallopian tube can be done using plastic tube by another surgical procedure.

VASECTOMY

In vasectomy, the vas deferens is cut and the cut ends are ligated.

- > So the **sperms cannot enter the ejaculatory duct** and the semen is devoid of sperms.
- > It is done by surgical procedure with local anesthesia.
- ➢ If necessary, the recanalization of vas deferens can be done with plastic tube.

SURROGACY OR SURROGATE MOTHER

Defination- The practice by which a **woman** (called a surrogate mother) **becomes pregnant and gives birth to a baby in order to give it to someone who cannot have children**

There are two kinds of surrogate mothers.

Traditional surrogates.

- > Artificial insemination first made surrogacy possible.
- A traditional surrogate is a <u>woman</u> who is artificially inseminated with the father's sperm.
- > She then carries the baby and delivers it for the parents to raise.
- A traditional surrogate is the baby's biological mother. That's because it was her ovum that was fertilized by the father's sperm.
- **Donor sperm** can also be used for a traditional surrogacy.

Gestational surrogates.

- In vitro fertilization (IVF) now makes it possible to take ovum from the mother, fertilize them with sperm from the father,
- And place the embryo into the uterus of a gestational surrogate.
- > The surrogate then carries the baby until birth.
- A gestational surrogate has no genetic ties to the child.
- That's because it wasn't her ovum that was used.

Gestational surrogacy has become more common than a traditional surrogate because of less legal complications.

A woman decides to use a surrogate for several reasons:

- > She may have medical problems with her uterus.
- She may have had a hysterectomy [removal of uterus.]
- There may be conditions that make pregnancy impossible or medically risky, such as severe heart disease.

Few criteria for selecting a surrogate mother

- > She is at least 21 years old,
- She Has already given birth to at least one healthy baby
- > Has passed a psychological screening by a mental health professional
- ➤ Willingly signs a contract agreeing to her role and responsibilities in the pregnancy.



KARYOTYPING

Karyotyping is the **procedure to obtain karyotype** of an individual.

- ➤ In this procedure, **Metaphase chromosomes** of a cell are obtained and photographed.
- From this photograph individual chromosomes are cut and arranged according to slandered classification.

For preparation rapidly dividing cells are used.

They can be obtained from following sources:

- > Lymphocytes from blood
- > Fibroblast of skin
- Bone marrow cells

Most commonly used cells are lymphocytes from peripheral blood.

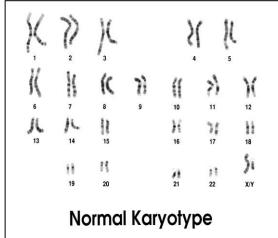
Following steps are involved

- > 5 ml of venous blood is collected and mixed with heparin for avoiding clotting
- Lymphocytes are separated from other cells
- > They are put into culture media
- Phytohaemogglutinin which stimulates the cell division is added into the culture
- > The culture is kept in incubator for three days at 37` temperature
- > At the end of three day **colchicin** is added to culture
- Colchicin has the property to arrest cell division during metaphase by preventing formation of spindles.

These cells are put into hypotonic saline. Cells will be enlarged and **chromosomes are** separated

- Cells are then fixed by glacial acetic acid and methanol.
- ➤ When cells ruptures, chromosomes spread in large area known as **metaphase spread**.
- Those slides are stained and photographed
- From the photograph individual chromosome is cut and arranged.

Thus, a karyotype of an individual is obtained.



TRISOMY 21 OR DOWN'S SYNDROME

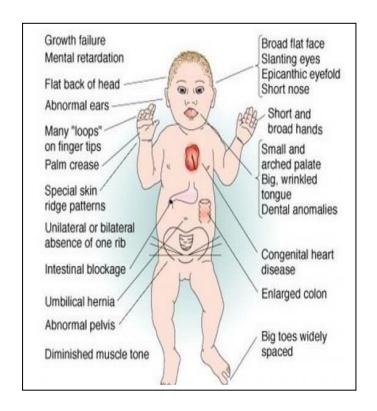
Incidence- 1 in 700 live births

Genetic abnormality

It occurs due to chromosomal abnormalities – **Trisomy of 21 chromosome**

Clinical features

- > Mentally retarded.
- > IQ is low.
- Poor growth.
- > Short stature
- Poor muscle tone.
- > Small head, protruding tongue,
- Small ears and nose
- Hands are short and broad.
- > Single palmer crease
- Many children suffer from major heart defect.
- > Abnormal pelvis



Cause

- 21 chromosome trisomy occur due to non disjunction during maternal meiosis
- Incidence increases with advancing maternal age [After 35 years of age]
- Recurrence risk is high when one child is already affected by down's syndrome

Life span

- > The mean age is 16 years. It may varies from few weeks to decades also
- Most affected adults develop Alzheimer's disease

Counselling

Prenatal diagnosis of Down's syndrome can be carried by following methods

- Amniocentesis
- Triple test- Alpha feto protein and estriol level is decressed and chorionic gonadotropin level is increased in Down's syndrome

TURNER SYNDROME [45, XO] OR MONOSOMY

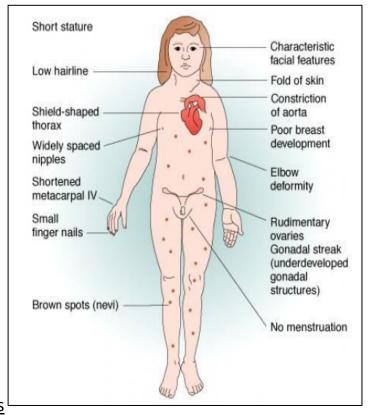
Incidence- 1 in 5000 to 10000 live births

Genetic abnormality

It occurs due to chromosomal abnormalities – monosomy of X chromosome

Clinical features

- > Affected individual is female
- Normal intelligenceOr slightly retarded.
- Webbed Neck
- > Low posterior hair line
- > Short stature
- Cubitus valgus
- Broad chest
- Widely spaced nipples
- > Poor breast development
- Ovary –non functional
- Menstrual abnormality
- Female is sterile. She is not Able to have child.
- Secondary sexual characteristic is Underdeveloped
- Coarctation of aorta



Cause

Monosomy of X chromosome is the most common cause for turner's syndrome [45, XO]

Counselling and Treatment

- ➤ **Oestrogen replacement therapy** should be given at <u>adolescent age for</u> <u>development of secondary sexual characteristics</u>
- Females are sterile so they can have child with the help of "in vitro Fertilisation"

Tall stature

physique

Slightly feminized

Mildly impaired IQ

KLINEFELTER SYNDROME [47,XXY]

Incidence- 1 in 1000 live births

Genetic abnormality

It occurs due to chromosomal abnormalities - 47,XXY

Clinical features

- > Affected individual is male
- Normal intelligenceOr slightly retarded.
- > Tall stature

Secondary sexual characteristic is Underdeveloped

- > Pubic hair pattern is like female
- ➤ Poor facial hair groath
- Gynecomastia [breast Development]
- > Testis are small.
- Normal penis and scrotum
- male is infertile. he is notAble to produce sperm

(15 points less than average) Tendency to lose chest hairs Breast development (in 30% of cases) Osteoporosis Female-type pubic hair pattern Small testes

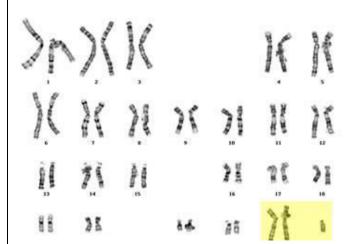
Frontal baldness

Poor beard growth

absent

Karyotype-

- **→** 47 XXY
- It's trisomy of sexual Chromosome



Counselling and Treatment

> At the Age of puberty treatment with testosterone will help to develop the secondary sexual characteristics.

SOMITES

Paraxial mesoderm becomes segmented to form somites

- > They develop on the sides of developing neural tube
- > It's a triangular structure
- > It is divisible into three parts
 - Ventromedial part it is called sclerotome.
 - The cells of this part migrate medially. They surround the neural tube.
 - They give rise to vertebral column and ribs.
 - Lateral part- It is called dermatome
 - The cells of this part migrate and reach ectoderm.
 - These cells form dermis of the skin and subcutaneous tissue.
 - **Intermediate part** It is called as myotome.
 - This part forms skeletal muscles.
 - Cervical, thorasic, lumbar, and sacral nerve innervate corresponding myotome
 - Somites exceed the number of spinal nerves but many of them subsequently degenerate

PRIMITIVE STREAK

- In blastocyst inner cell mass is arranged into two plates
- ➤ The upper layer towards amniotic cavity is the **epiblast.** Cells of this layer are **coloumner**.
- ➤ The **lower layer** towards the yolk sac is the **hypoblast**. Cells of this layer are **cubical**.
- **❖** At one circular area near margin of the disc, cubical cells of the hypoblast become columnar. This area is called the <u>prochordal plate</u>.
 - > It determines the central axis of the embryo
 - And also determines the head and tail ends.
 - > Soon after formation of the prochordal plate,
 - > epiblast cells lying along central axis near the tail end of the disc begin to proliferate.
 - Those cells form an elevation that bulges into amniotic cavity.
 - This elevation is called the primitive streak
 - Primitive streak is at first rounded or oval swelling.
 - ➤ With elongation of the embryonic disc, it becomes a **linear structure**.
 - > Linear structure lying in the central axis of the disc.

The cells that proliferate in the region of the primitive streak pass side ways.

They pushing themselves between the epiblast and hypoblast.

- These cells form the intra embryonic mesoderm.
- Some cells displace hypoblast and form layer which is now known as endoderm
- Thus both endoderm and mesoderm are derived from the epiblast.
- ❖ The remaining cells of epiblast **now form ectoderm.**

The process of formation of the primitive streak, endoderm, intra-embryonic mesoderm is referred as **gastrulation**.

Notochord

Notochord is a **midline structure** that develops in the region lying **between** the **cranial end** of the **primitive streak** and **caudal end** of the **prochordal plate**.

- During development, notochord passes through several stages,
- ➤ The cranial end of the primitive streak becomes thickened to from primitive knot
- > A depression appears in to the primitive knot known as blastopore
- > Cells in the primitive knot multiply and pass cranially in the midline
- > They pass in between ectoderm and endoderm
- > They reach upto caudal end of the prochordal plate
- > These cells form a solid chord known as notochordal process
- ➤ This process undergoes **several stages of rearrangements** and form **definitive notochord.**
 - Blastopore cavity extends into the notochordal process and convert it into a tube called **notochordal canal**
 - Floor cells of notochordal canal becomes mixed up with the endoderm
 - Gradually the canal become flattened and becomes a plate like structure called as notochordal plate
 - This process is reversed and notochordal plate again becomes curved and **forms a tube**.
 - Then tube is converted into a solid rod which is known as the definitive notochord.

Notochord enlarge in the midline

- Then that position is taken up by vertebral coloumn.
- Notochord persists in the region of intervertebral disc as nucleus pulposus.

PHARYNGEAL ARCHES

- They are thickening of mesoderm present in the wall of foregut.
- At first there are six arches. The fifth arch disappears and only five remain.
- Between two arches, the endoderm is pushed outwards to form a series of pouch
- Opposite the each pouch the surface ectoderm dips inwards as an ectodermal cleft
- > From each arch different muscles, bones and cartilages are formed
- > It is described below

First pharyngeal arch

Mandibular arch

Skeletal

- Malleus & Incus of the middle ear
- maxilla & mandible
- spine of sphenoid bone
- Sphenomandibular ligament
- palatine bone

Muscles

Muscles of mastication

- Masseter
- medial & lateral pterygoid muscles
- · Temporalis muscles
- Mylohyoid muscle
- anterior belly of Digastric muscle,
- Tensor palati muscle
- Tensor tympani muscle

Nerve supply

Mandibular Nerve

Derivatives of 2nd pharyngeal arch

Skeletal and

- Stapes,
- Temporal styloid process,

- · Stylohyoid ligament, and
- Lesser cornu of the hyoid bone.

Muscles

- Muscles of face
- Occipitofrontalis muscle
- > Platysma
- > Stylohyoid muscle
- ➤ Posterior belly of <u>Digastric</u>
- > Stapedius muscle
- Auricular muscles

Nerve supply

> Facial nerve

Derivatives of 3rd pharyngeal arch

Skeletal

- > Greater cornu of hyoid bone
- > Lower part of the body of hyoid bone

Muscles

> Stylopharyngeous

Nerve supply

Glosopharyngeal nerve

Cartilages of the larynx are derived from the fourth and sixth pharyngeal arches

4th pharyngeal arch

Muscles- cricothyroid muscle, all intrinsic muscles of soft palate except tensor veli palatini

Nerve- superior laryngeal nerve

6th pharyngeal arch

Muscles- All intrinsic muscles of <u>larynx</u> except the <u>cricothyroid muscle</u>

Nerve- Recurrent laryngeal nerve

DEVELOPMENT OF FACE

Face develops from frontonasal process and right and left mandibular arches (First pharyngeal arch)

The mandibular arch devides into maxillary process and a mandibular process

Lower lip and lower jow

➤ The right and left mandibular processes meet in the midline and fuse They form lower lip and lower jow

Upper lip

➤ It is formed by the fusion of the frontonasal process with the right and left maxillary process

Cheeks

Cheeks are formed by fusion of the maxillary and mandibular processes

<u>Nose</u>

> It is derived from the frontonasal process

Nasal cavity

- The nasal placode gets depressed and form nasal pit
- That nasal pit enlarge to form the nasal cavity

Paranasal air sinuses

> They appears due to outgrowth from the nasal cavity

Palate

- > It is formed by fusion of three components
- ➤ **Right and left palatal process** arising from maxillary process and **primitive**plate which is derived from the frontonasal process



Cartilage

- It is a specialized connective tissue
- It consist of three components
 - O Ground substance
 - O Fibers and
 - O Cells.
- Three types of cartilage are found in the body
 - 1. Hyaline cartilage
 - 2. Elastic cartilage
 - 3. Fibro cartilage
- They differ from each other because of the type and amount of fibers present in them.
- Cartilage is not supplied with blood vessels
- ➤ It is avascular
- It is usually surrounded by membrane called as perichondrium.
- Perichondrium having reach blood supply.
- Chondrocytes receive nutritive substance by diffusion through the ground substance.

HYALINE CARTILAGE

It is the most abundant type of cartilage in human Body.

Location:

- > In fetal skeleton,
- > Ends of adult Bones,
- Nose,
- Costal cartilage,
- > Trachea, bronchi and larynx.

Description:

- It consist of homogeneous, transparent and amorphous intracellular matrix.
- Matrix consist of collagen fibers and ground substance

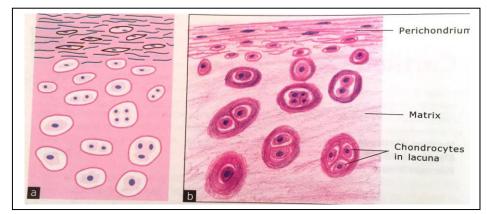
- Cartilage cell known as chondrocytes
- Chondrocyte is present in small spaces called as lacunae.
- It is surrounded by perichondrium

Fibers

- ➤ Its type 2 collagen fibers
- It is provide stability and strength to the cartilage
- They are not seen in the histological section because they have same refractive index as that a ground substance.

Ground substance

Homogenous, gel like structure.



Chondrocytes

- > They occupy lacunae in the matrix.
- They are responsible for the synthesis of collagen fibers and ground substance.

Perichondrium

- ➤ Hyaline cartilage on its free surface covered with a fibro vascular membrane called as perichondrium.
- ➤ It is absent at the free surface of bone at joint cavity. Known as[articular cartilage]
- ➤ It is consist of two layers
 - 1. Outer fibrous layer.
 - 2. inner cellular layer

Functions

- Articular cartilage provides smooth surface for movement of joints.
- It is provides support[as in costal cartilage]
- Firmness keeps the lumen of trachea and bronchi patent.

ELASTIC CARTILAGE

Location

- > It is present in pinna of the ear.
- > Epiglottis
- > Corniculate
- > Cuneiform cartilage of larynx.
- External auditory meatus and auditory tube.

Description

Also known as "yellow elastic cartilage"

Fibers

- > Elastic cartilage contains branching elastic fibers.
- > Contains type 2 collagen fibers.

Ground substance

Contains proteoglycans.

Cells

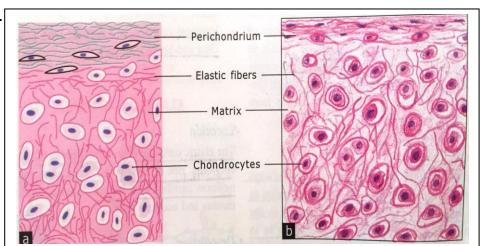
- > Chondrocytes are present in lacunae.
- > These cells are bigger than cells present in hyaline cartilage.
- > They are closely placed.

Perichondrium

- Having two layer
 - (1) Outer fibrous layer
 - (2) Inner cellular layer.

Function.

It provides shape and support to the organ.



FIBROCARTILAGE

➤ It is also known as "white fibrocartilage"

Location

- Intervertebral discs
- > Public symphysis
- > Manubriosternal joint
- > Menisci of knee joint
- > Articular disc of temporomandibular and sternoclavicular joints

Description

Fibers

> Type-1 variety

Ground substance

Very less variety.

Cells

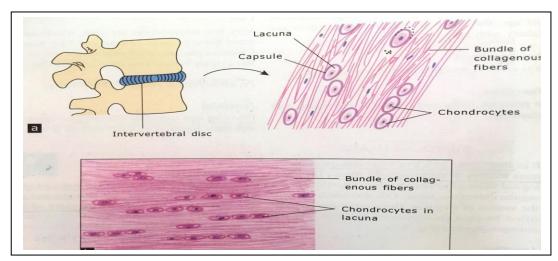
- Very few chondrocytes are seen
- > They are placed between large fiber bundles

Perichondrium

➤ It's abscent in fibrocartilage.

Function

> It is capable of resisting compressive and shear forces.



SKELETAL MUSCLE

They are also known as striated or voluntary muscle.

- > They are supplied by somatic nerves
- Under light microscope it shows alternating dark and light bands
- Skeletal muscle consists numerous muscle fibers

Covering

- Each individual muscle fiber is surrounded by a covering known as endomysium
- ➤ Many muscle fibers aggregate to form bundle which is surrounded by a layer called as perimysium
- Many bundles unite to form a muscle which is covered by epimysium.

The point of contact between terminal end of axon and muscle fiber is called motor end plate.

Basic unit of skeletal muscle is long **cylindrical fiber**. Fiber is **formed by fusion of many myoblast**

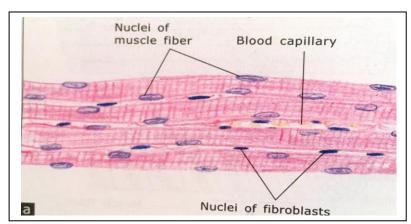
• Nuclei of cells are present towards peripheral part of cytoplasm

Striations

- > The dark band is called as "A" band and Light band is called as "I" band
- A thin line is seen in the middle of the light area is called as **Z line**
- > The mid region of the dark band is called as H band
- ➤ In the middle of the H band the line is known as M line

The area between two adjacent Z lines called as Sarcomere.

- A sarcomere is the contractile unit of muscle
- It's containing thick myosin and thin actin filaments



CARDIAC MUSCLE

Cardiac muscle is also **striated** similar to skeletal muscle but its **contraction is involuntary.**

- They are supplied by autonomic nerves
- > They are **present only in heart**.

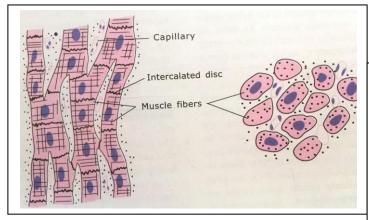
Cardiac muscle is consisting of **long and thick** muscle fibers

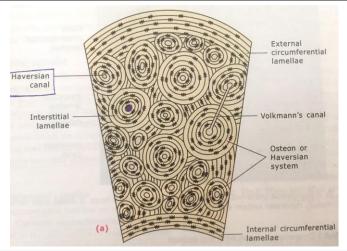
- ➤ These fibers **show branching**
- So, individual fiber appears as "Y" shaped.
- Each fiber is made up of cardiac myocytes.
- Each myocyte has a **centrally placed single oval nucleus.**
- > They are joined and form a junction known as **intercalated disc**.
- ➤ **Gap junctions** are present in the <u>longitudinal or lateral portion of intercalated</u> disc. It helps in spreading of action potential

Myofibrils of cardiac muscle have actin and myosin filaments.

Applied

- <u>Hypertrophy of cardiac muscle</u> when cardiac muscle works excessively their size is enlarged.
- No capacity for regeneration
- Damaged part is replaced by fibrous tissue.





COMPACT BONE

It forms the **bulk of the diaphysis** of long bone

- It forms a thin layer on the external surface of all other bones.
- This part of bone is called compact because no space is visible on naked eye
 examination

Bone core is made up of spongy bone

Copmact bone covering

Periosteum- the bone on its external surface is covered by a membrane called periosteum

• It consists two layer – outer fibrous layer and inner cellular layer.

Endosteum – It is the **thin lining** of the bone **towards marrow cavity** and spongy bone

Compact bone is made up of Lamella.

Lamellae are present in three different patterns

Haversian system of lamellae

Also known as osteon

Lamellae Arranged around a canal known as **Haversian canal**. This canal is **containing vessels and lymphatics**.

Blood vessels and nerves go inside the compact bone through volkmann's canal

Intersitial lamellae

Lamellae seen in areas between osteon is known as interstitial lamellae

Circumferential lamellae

It is two types

Outer circumferential lamellae- present **on the outer surface of bone** just below periosteum.

Inner circumferential lamellae- It encircle the marrow cavity

Clinical application

❖ Rickets- poor mineralization of bone due to vitamin d deficiency in child results in bowing of legs known as rickets.

ARTERY

Arteries are vessels which conduct blood from heart to tissue.

The wall of the artery is having three layers.

Tunica intima

- Innermost layer of artery.
- It is having four components
 - o **Endothelium** made up of **simple squamous epithelium**.
 - o Basal lamina
 - Subendothelial connective tissue
 - o Internal elastic lamina- made up of a layer of elastic lamina

Tunica media

- > Intermediate layer
- It is the thickest layer and consisting of elastic fibers and smooth muscle cells
- The amount of elastic fibers and smooth muscle is depending upon the size of artery
- > They arranged circularly
- > It is separated from tunica adventitia by external elastic lamina

Tunica advantitia

- Outermost layer of artery
- ➤ Made up of connective tissue cells and collagen fibers

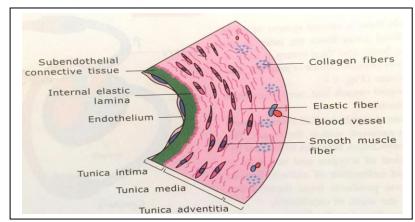
Classification of arteries

Into three types

- Elastic arteries larger arteries ex. Common carotid, subclavian artery
- Muscular arteries- medium sized arteries.
- Arterioles- Smaller arteries. Terminating into capillaries.

Clinical

Atherosclerosis- deposition of lipid, fibrous tissue in tunica intima



THYROID GLAND

It is **surrounded** by thin connective tissue **capsule**.

From the capsule **septa** extend into gland **carrying blood vessels** along with them

Parenchyma

> The parenchyma of the gland is arranged in the form of thyroid follicles.

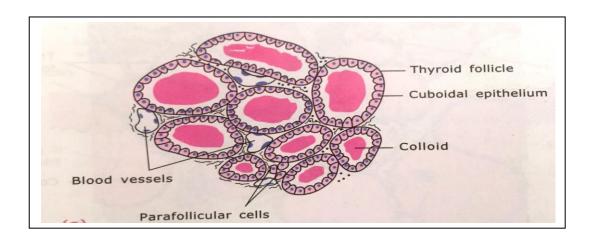
Thyroid follicles

- > Follicles are having central cavity that contains gel like material called colloid.
 - Colloid is containing thyroglobulin.
 - Thyroglobulin is the storage form of thyroid hormones
- Follicles are lined by a single layer of epithelium
- > Epithelial cells of **follicle vary in size from cuboidal to columner**
- > It depends on the activity of cells
 - Cuboidal cells reffered as "resting stage"
 - Coloumnar cells reffered as "active" or "secratory stage"

Each follicle is surrounded by a network of reticular fibers, vessels and lymphatics

Parafollicular cells

- Few cells present surronding follicular cells called as parafollicular cells
- > They secrete hormone calcitonin.



SPLEEN

The structure of the spleen is **similar to the lymphnode**.

capsule

➤ It is covered with a **capsule**. That capsule is made of dense connective tissue and elastic fibers.

A cut section through the spleen shows the substances of <u>spleen arranged in the</u> <u>form of white pulp and red pulp</u>

The white pulp

The white pulp appears **basophilic** (bluish) in the **haematoxylin** stained section because it **contains lymphocytes**.

The red pulp

> The red pulp appears red because it contains many sinuses filled with RBC.

Circulation of blood through spleen

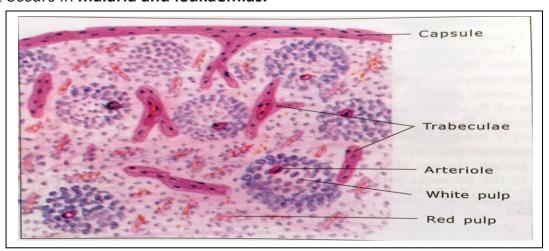
- Splenic artery enters at hilum. It is branched and enters the pulp where it is covered by lymphocytes
- > That periarteriolar lymphatic sheath is called as white pulp.
- > At the center of this pulp is the **central artery**
- > There are two theories of circulation open and closed circulation

Functions of spleen

- Filteration of blood
- Site of production of B and T lymphocytes
- Destruction site for RBC

Applied

- > Splenomegaly- enlargement of the spleen is called as spleanomegaly.
- > It occurs in malaria and leukaemias.



APPENDIX

Appendix is a worm like diverticulum attached at the caecum

- It's wall contains all four layers typical of intestinal tract.
- 1. Mucosa-Innermost layer.

Epithelium of mucosa

It is made up of columnar epithelium. Also contain goblet cells.

<u>Lamina propria of mucosa</u>- this is a **layer of loose connective tissue**, which support the epithelium

- > It contains the blood and lymphatic vessels.
- It is **occupied with many large and small lymphatic nodules**. These may extend upto submucosa.
- > Lymphatic nodules can be enlarged and can block the lumen of appendix.

The muscularis mucosa

- ➤ It consists of thin **layer of smooth muscle**. These are arranged as inner circular and outer longitudinal layer.
- > It helps in changing the shape of mucosa
- > It is disrupted where lymphatic nodule extend to submucosa

2. Submucosa

- ➤ It consist of moderately dense connective tissue rich in collagen and elastic fiber
- It contains blood vessels, lymphatics vessels and Nerves and meissener's plexus
- It may show extension of lymphatic nodules.

3. muscle layer

- muscle layer containing inner circular and outer longitudinal smooth muscle coats
- > also contains myentric plexus
- 4. Serosa- the outer most covering

SUPRA RENAL GLAND

The supra renal gland consists of two structurally and functionally different parts.

- Centrally located Medulla
- > And outer Cortex

Cortex is divided in to three zones.

Zona Glomerulosa-

- ➤ It is thin outer most layer
- The cells of this region are arranged in arches
- When it is sectioned it looks like cluster of balls, so known as glomerulosa
- ➤ Mineralocorticoid is produced from this layer.

Zona Fasciculata

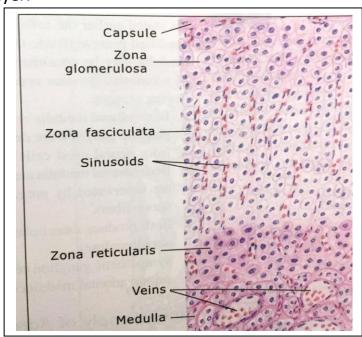
- > Thick zone situated in the middle of the cortex.
- ➤ It is continuous superficially with zona glomerulosa and deeply by zona reticularis. No demarcation line is present between zones.
- Cells are arranged into parallel columns
- > Glucocorticoids are produced from this layer.

Zona Reticularis

- > It is situated adjacent to medulla
- Cells are arranged in <u>three dimensional Network of branching and</u> <u>anastomosing cords.</u>
- > Androgens are produced from this Layer.

Medulla

- > The cells of medulla are of two types
- Norepinephrine and epinephrine secreting cells.
- It is innervated by preganglionic sympathetic fibers



TESTIS

It has a thick white capsule called as tunica albuginea.

Tunica vasculosa underlies the tunica albuginea

The **connective tissue** septa devides testis into about **250 compartments** called as **lobules.**

- > Each lobule contain one to three seminiferous tubules.
- > These tubules are the sites where sperms are produced.

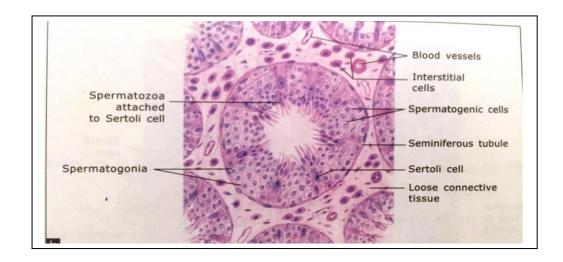
In between the seminiferous tubules there is presence of loose connective tissue.

It is known as interstitial tissue

- ➤ It is having blood vessels
- > It contains leyding cells which produce testosterone

Seminiferous tubules open into rete testis

Rete testis having efferent ducts which is connected with epididymis.



OVARY

Ovaries are almond shaped paired structure

Each ovary measures about 3cm length, 1.5 cm width, 1 cm in thickness.

Each ovary contains following parts -

Germinal epithelium-

- It is covering surface of ovary
- It is single layered cuboidal or squamous epithelium
- Name is misnomer beacuce it does not give rise to germ cells.

Tunica albuginea

• It is connective tissue layer lying below germinal epithelium.

Cross section of ovary shows outer cortex and inner medulla.

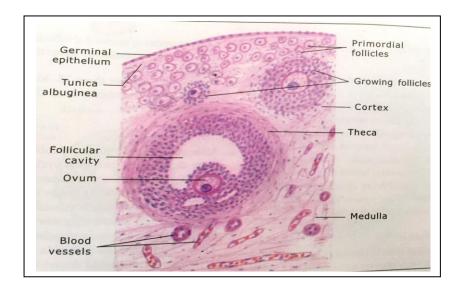
Cortex

- Lies below tunica albugenia
- It **contains germ cells. Ovarian follicles** formed here.
- Ovarian follicles are in various stages of development

Medulla

- It is present deep to cortex.
- It consists of loose connective tissue. And containing lymphocytes, blood vessels, and nerves

The demarcation between cortex and medulla is not clear.



URETER

Ureter is a tube with star shaped lumen inside

➤ It conducts urine from renal pelvis to the urinary bladder It's structure **containing three walls**

Mucosa

- Epithelium- transistional type of Epithelium which is 4 to 5 layers thick
- Lamina propria- made up of loose connective tissue containing blood vessels and lymphatics

Muscle layer

• Inner longitudinal and outer circular layer of smooth muscle

Adventitia

• Outer most layer of ureter made up of loose connective tissue.

Clinical

- **Ureter stone** Stone in the ureter.
 - Kidney may dislodge the stone and pass into ureter.
 - It causes severe pain radiating from back to front side at lower abdomen.

